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ABSTRACT

In this third edition of "Training Manager Competencies: The Standards," the International Board of Standards for Training, Performance and Instruction (IBSTPI) presents an updated definition and discussion of the competencies of training managers. It is an expanded view that reflects the complexities and pressures of current practice and technological advancements. It also reflects the globalization of the training and performance field and the global responsibilities of training managers. This book is intended to contribute to the training and performance knowledge base and enhance the performance of all training managers in their key roles, benefiting those who work for them and, ultimately, the employees, customers, organizations and associates who learn and improve their performance as a result of the efforts of a professional training organization. The book contains the following chapters: (1) Introduction: The Training Manager Today; (2) The 2003 IBSTPI Training Manager Competencies and Their Development; (3) Discussion and Analysis; (4) Use of the Training Manager Competencies; (5) Applications for Special Training Manager Roles; and (6) The Competency Validation. Appendices include: "IBSTPI and Its History"; "The 1989 IBSTPI Training Manager Competencies And Performance Statements"; a glossary; a bibliography; "The IBSTPI Code of Ethical Standards for Training Managers"; and a list of professional associations for training managers. (Contains 91 references.) (MES)

In this third edition of *Training Manager Competencies: The Standards,* the International Board of Standards for Training, Performance and Instruction (IBSTPI) presents an updated definition and discussion of the competencies of training managers. It is an expanded view that reflects the complexities and pressures of current practice and technological advancements. It also reflects the globalization of the training and performance field and the global responsibilities of training managers.

This book will contribute to the training and performance knowledge base and enhance the performance of all training managers in their key roles, benefiting those who work for them and, ultimately, the employees, customers, organizations and associates who learn and improve their performance as a result of the efforts of a professional training organization.

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ERIC Clearinghouse on Information & Technology
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MARGUERITE FOXON is Principal Performance Technologist with Motorola, working from her home in Tallahassee, Florida, since 1993.

RITA C. RICHEY is Professor and Program Coordinator of Instructional Technology at Wayne State University.

ROBERT C. ROBERTS is Principal Consultant of Bob Roberts and Associates, Inc., a consulting firm specializing in the improvement of organizational and employee performance in human service agencies.

TIMOTHY W. SPANNAUS is Senior Lecturer in Instructional Technology and Research Fellow at the Institute for Learning and Performance Improvement at Wayne State University in Detroit.

TRAINING MANAGER COMPETENCIES
THE STANDARDS • THIRD EDITION
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Training Manager Competencies

TRAINING MANAGER COMPETENCIES

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This book is dedicated to Judith Hale, President of Hale Associates and former President of the International Board of Standards for Training, Performance and Instruction. We are indebted to Judy's visionary research and leadership which formed the basis of the first IBSTPI training manager competencies. In this way, Judy's influence continues within these pages. We thank you.

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Authors

MARGUERITE FOXON is currently Principal Performance Technologist with Motorola, working from her home in Tallahassee, Florida, since 1993. Prior to coming to the U.S., she was National Director of Education for Coopers & Lybrand (now PricewaterhouseCoopers) in Australia, Indonesia and Papua New Guinea. She has consulted or presented conference papers on training and evaluation in Europe, Latin America, Asia, North America and Australasia. Her publications are mainly in the field of evaluation and instructional design and she is co-author of the third edition of *Instructional Design Competencies: The Standards.* Listed in the *International Who's Who of Professionals,* she received the Robert de Keiffer International Fellowship Award, by the Association of Educational Communications & Technology, for forging professional ties in educational communications and technology between the U.S. and Australia and New Zealand. She has served on the International Board of Standards for Training, Performance and Instruction (IBSTPI) for 7 years.

RITA C. RICHEY is Professor and Program Coordinator of Instructional Technology at Wayne State University. She has been teaching at Wayne State for over 30 years and is experienced in not only program development, but also in education and training research. Widely published in the area of instructional design theory, she is the author of *The Theoretical and Conceptual Bases of Instructional Design, Designing Instruction for the Adult Learner, The Legacy of Robert M. Gagne* and co-author of the

third edition of *Instructional Design Competencies: The Standards.* She is also co-author of *Instructional Technology: The Definition and Domains of the Field,* a book which received the 1995 Outstanding Book Award and the 1996 Brown Publication Award, both from the Association of Educational Communications & Technology. She has received four major awards from Wayne State University: the President's Award for Excellence in Teaching, the Outstanding Graduate Mentor's Award, a Distinguished Faculty Fellowship, and an award for Outstanding Scholarly Achievement by Women Faculty. In addition, she has been elected to the Wayne State University Academy of Scholars. Rita served on the IBSTPI board for 9 years.

ROBERT C. ROBERTS is Principal Consultant of *Bob Roberts and Associates* Inc., a consulting firm specializing in the improvement of organizational and employee performance in human service agencies. He served for more than 25 years as a trainer, training manager, director of training and research, and director of a large professional development center and has extensive experience in recruiting, mentoring and supervising training managers. Bob has overseen training managers actively involved in the delivery of training programs, the design and development of training and performance improvement programs, the production and management of training materials and documents, and the development of automated data systems for all facets of the training function including budgeting, evaluation and research. Bob served for 9 years on the IBSTPI board.

TIMOTHY W. SPANNAUS is Senior Lecturer in Instructional Technology and Research Fellow of the Institute for Learning and Performance Improvement at Wayne State University in Detroit. He is also Principal Consultant for The Emdicium Group, Inc. He has over 30 years of experience as teacher, trainer, instructional designer, consultant, and researcher. Tim has been on the IBSTPI board for 8 years, serving as President from 2000 to 2003. He is Past President of the Association for Development of Computer-based Instructional Systems.

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Foreword

Change is something that the work force of the new millennium understands all too well. We have watched major corporations shudder and redefine their directions in the face of market volatility. Some have disappeared altogether; others continue to flounder. Senior executives, who were once highly regarded, now parade across the media because of their excesses rather than their successes. Ethics is emerging as the centerpiece of business school curricula. It is in this climate that IBSTPI provides us with a much-needed revision of *Training Manager Competencies: The Standards*. This third edition is the defining work that all of us must master in light of the new realities.

In September of 2002, I met with several chief learning officers of major global organizations. We reflected on what we have learned about learning, how we have changed as a result of that learning, and how we must constantly adapt our structures and styles to keep up with our evolving environments. Many of us, myself included, had recently migrated to new positions in new industries. Collectively, we represented consulting, finance, insurance, academia, technology, and other specialties.

We pondered the concept that there is only one organization in the world, and it has many names. The similarities of our challenges are many; the differences cause us to embrace lifelong learning. Terrorist acts, corporate greed, employee confusion, and unethical backlashes

have redefined business as usual. It is more and more difficult to keep on top of the game.

Training managers typically embark on their careers because they are "people persons," intent upon helping employees develop their full potential while ensuring that their organizations meet stated goals and objectives. Knowledge management, e-learning, ethics, cross-functional alliance, and networking have gained new importance over the past decade. This work highlights the need for awareness of, and concentration on, those disciplines.

More importantly, *Training Manager Competencies: The Standards* reflects the boundless world. I used to joke in my Motorola days that, in the 1980s, only one person in the organization had a passport and everyone knew where he was. In the 1990s, however, many of us had passports, and no one was sure where anyone was. Today, those points converge. Most of us have passports now, and our organizations absolutely know where we are. Fiscal responsibility and time management demand it. And our organizations have learned that, in order to be effective in other cultures, managers must truly understand people in the countries where they do business: how they learn, what they hold sacred, and what offends, amuses, and inspires.

My mentor and friend Bob Galvin, former Motorola chairman, used to tell us to take two suitcases when going into another country, one full and one empty. The full suitcase was to carry all that we had traveled there to teach, while the empty suitcase was to be filled with our new knowledge and returned home. This revised book constantly reminds the reader of the vast differences to be encountered in the world and of the importance of being appropriately prepared for the journey.

On the surface, any book of competencies can be perceived to be a book of lists. The reader is encouraged to move beyond the lists to the theory that characterizes training manager performance. You will find defining information that will guide you in program design and implementation. Study the IBSTPI assumptions (chapter 2), reflecting especially on the development of job standards that are meaningful on a global basis. Heed the importance of communication, negotiation, strategy, the continuously changing technology that defines our techniques, and the ethical and legal issues framing our work (chapter 3). In chapter 4, review applications of the training manager competencies. Of special note is chapter 5, which delineates unique training roles and their place in organizations and the seven skill areas common to each role.

I have been a training manager for more than 2 decades. During that

time, the IBSTPI standards have been a key foundation of the curricula my teams have developed. I have been waiting for this revision. Our profession, our client organizations, and our world will profit from it. As a trainer, I view change as job security. If we were all to facilitate only one course in one way, we would stagnate, as would our organizations. That is why I applaud IBSTPI's vision in revising this seminal work. I encourage you to embrace the changes reflected here and to stretch yourselves to master the lessons to be learned.

James Kouzes and Barry Posner (2002), in the third edition of their powerful work, *The Leadership Challenge,* tell us that "The most significant contribution leaders make is not simply to today's bottom line; it is to the long-term development of people and institutions so they can adapt, change, prosper, and grow" (p. xxv). Lead us toward the future by developing yourselves and the future workforce. Now, more than ever, the training profession must lead the way. *Training Manager Competencies: The Standards* is the tool kit we need to prepare ourselves to harness change.

Bill Wiggenhorn
Chief Learning Officer, CIGNA
Retired President, Motorola University

Preface

In 1989, the International Board of Standards for Training, Performance and Instruction (IBSTPI) published the first edition of *Training Manager Competencies: The Standards*. This original list of 15 core competencies and 80 performance statements consisted of statements that were found at the time to comprehensively represent the training manager position. A second edition was published in 1994; however the competencies themselves were not changed at this time. In this third edition, IBSTPI is presenting an updated definition and discussion of the competencies of training managers. It is an expanded view that reflects the complexities and pressures of current practice and technological advancements. It also reflects the globalization of the training and performance field and the global responsibilities of training managers. The current volume represents the culmination of a project that began in June, 1999, with a conference at Estes Park, Colorado, United States where the board met with researchers and practitioners to discuss the role of the training manager.

This volume, along with *Instructional Design Competencies: The Standards* (2001) and *Instructor Competences: The Standards* (1993), currently being updated, represent comprehensive, validated standards for training and performance improvement practitioners. Those who manage training, regardless of their title, accomplish their objectives through other people, including instructional designers and instructors. Training professionals will do their work more effectively and effi-

ciently working with a manager who understands and demonstrates the competencies in this book.

The board acknowledges that those who manage training come from a variety of backgrounds and that their ultimate career aspirations may not be in training. As a result, we hope that this book may help these managers define their jobs and point them toward development activities that will improve their performance. For career trainers who aspire to management, this book will help in preparing for a new position.

This book has multiple purposes. Foremost, it is intended to contribute to the training and performance knowledge base. In addition, we hope that it enhances the performance of all training managers in their key roles, benefiting those who work for them and, ultimately, the employees, customers, organizations and associates who learn and improve their performance as a result of the efforts of a professional training organization.

For further information about IBSTPI and the competencies, please visit the board's Web site at http://www.ibstpi.org.

TIMOTHY W. SPANNAUS

Acknowledgments

We would like to acknowledge the contributions of the many people who have participated in the development and validation of these newly revised training manager competencies.

Each member of the IBSTPI Board has actively participated in the process. Current and former board members who contributed during the various stages of the project include Michiko Achilles (Japan), Ileana de la Teja (Canada), Pat Douglas (USA), Dennis Fields (USA), Kristian Folkman (Norway), Peter Goodyear (England), James Klein, (USA), Jelke van der Pal (Netherlands), George Pollard (USA), Dennis Sheriff (USA), Rod Sims (Australia), J. Michael Spector (USA), Mark Teachout (USA), and Diane Wagner (USA).

These competencies have also been influenced by the many people around the world who provided input and reactions, both formally and informally, throughout the long development process. We thank you all.

We would like to particularly acknowledge a number of individuals who contributed their expertise or insights to the final set of competencies or to the writing of this book. Lois Anderson, Leslie Cardinal, Christine Johnson, Howard Kalman, and Kevin Owens shared their competency research with the Board. Noella Dietz and Ansu Mason provided support with the survey design and statistical analysis. Input on the evolving role of the training manager came from many professionals, but we would like to especially thank Declan Barry (England), Peter Bartos (Australia), David Bodley (South Africa), Hans Brouwer (Nether-

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Training Manager Competencies

Part I

Development, Interpretation and Application

1

Introduction: The Training Manager Today

The Concept of Training Manager

At the most basic level, a training manager is one who manages the development and delivery of training and all that is associated with those activities. "The overriding challenge to all Training Managers is identical to that faced by all other managers: to deliver what is needed by the organization—to produce results and to do it in the fastest and most cost-effective manner possible. To do this, training managers must *think* and *act* like managers—be action-oriented, proactive not reactive" (Tracey as cited in Hale, 1991, p. 15).

Even though researchers agree that managerial competence is generic and transfers across functional areas, training mangers need skills unique to the human resource development function (Hale, 1991; Nadler & Wiggs, 1986). Training managers, therefore, require a distinct body of knowledge about how humans learn and what determines performance. They must also understand and be able to affect the environmental, managerial, and individual factors that contribute to or impede human performance.

Orientation of the Training Manager

The management role of the training manager has substantially evolved since the first set of IBSTPI competencies was published in 1989

and now involves much more than the day-to-day management of a centralized unit providing traditional training services. Training managers must run their units as a mini-business, as do other managers in an organization. They develop strategic plans, are measured against their achievement of organizationally relevant goals, and demonstrate a customer-focused business style.

The "if we build it, they will come" mentality has been replaced by a performance improvement mindset focused on the goals of the organization as a system, customer needs, and continuous improvement. In 1994, Brinkerhoff and Gill identified this mindset as a revolutionary approach to providing training and development. Three years later, the American Society for Training & Development (ASTD) identified the shift from providing training to improving performance as the trend most likely to occur by the year 2000 (American Society for Training & Development, 1997).

In the twenty-first century, successful training managers focus on building and managing an internal customer base, consulting across the organization, developing products and services aligned with organizational needs, and demonstrating that the training function enhances performance at an individual, team and organizational level. Yet recent studies continue to find that the majority of training managers spend too much time on administration and course development and delivery and too little insuring that their interventions impact performance and are driven by organizational goals (Van Buren & Woodwell, 2000). These new IBSTPI competencies are written from the perspective of the training manager who operates entirely with a performance improvement orientation and has a primary commitment to the mission of the organization.

Assumptions

The training manager competencies are based on ten assumptions. The three assumptions discussed in this chapter pertain to the specific definition of the training manager role. These are: (1) training managers are those persons who demonstrate training manager competencies on the job regardless of their job title or professional training; (2) a training manger is the designated leader of an organizational unit that has human, material, and financial resources to be deployed over time on multiple short- and long-term training and performance improvement projects; and (3) the fundamental function of a training manager is to serve as an organization's champion and leader with regard to training and performance.

The competencies are based upon the simple assertion that a training manager is the person who demonstrates the identified skills irrespective of qualifications or title. Often it is only the demonstration of the competencies that identifies a training manager, since the title is seldom used in many organizations. However, the department being led (whatever its name) must have an ongoing function within the organization and sufficient resources to support a wide variety of training and performance projects. Without such substance the job responsibility would be more akin to project management rather than true training management. In other words, the extent of resources available tends to determine the level of complexity of a particular training manager's role.

A training manager, however, is more than a skillful administrator. The training manager is the person who serves as the organization's advocate for learning, development, and improved performance. In a sense the training manager is the organization's "education conscience." This is an important role, one that requires considerable political, technological, management, and training expertise.

Evolution of the Training and Performance Field

A review of the training and performance field since the early 1900s highlights the progression from a mechanistic view of training to the strategic approach practiced today, from the focus on skills and knowledge to the current emphasis on performance and contribution to organizational goals. This transformation from a focus on training to a focus on training and performance occurred roughly in four phases. These phases describe the development of training in the United States, but they have been paralleled in other countries as well. As such, they provide a general guide to the evolution of the training function, both at an organizational level as well as a national level. Developing countries, or organizations with recently established training groups, are typically just beginning this evolutionary process.

The first phase of the evolution of training as we now practice it is characterized by the belief that there is an optimum way to perform a task and that employees can and should be trained to that end. This philosophy still undergirds the practice of training in many organizations a century later. In the United States, this was exemplified first by the work of Frederick Taylor (1856–1915) who was called "the father of corporate training" (Pepitone, 1995, p.30). Taylor's approach, known as sci-

entific management, was to break a task down into its components, redesign it for maximum productivity, and then teach it so that workers could perform it correctly and in the shortest reasonable time. He also emphasized the importance of developing all employees to the highest level at which they could perform (Pugh, Hickson, & Hinings, 1983). Within a decade from the time Taylor introduced this approach to training workers, it was accepted as the best way to improve job performance.

In the second phase, training was regarded as essential to the development of a work force and the solution to most, if not all, employee performance problems. There was an emerging interest in *developing* employees, especially managers. Thus management development training became a specialization of many large training organizations.

In the United States, this was the dominant thinking by the early 1950s. It resulted to a great extent from the need to rapidly develop a skilled military force during World War II. Trainers and training managers were an integral part of organizational life. The focus continued to be primarily on the individual worker's need for skill and knowledge. Training was delivered in classroom settings by trainers who were likely to be subject matter experts recruited to teach what they knew. Course content was based on what the expert thought learners ought to know and was often unrelated to the actual performance required in the work place (Coscarelli, Geiss, Harless, Shrock, & Smith, 1986).

There was much discussion about the proper focus of the field. Was it training, development, education, or a mix of the three? At this time, the field was commonly referred to as Training and Development and was positioned as a staff function within the organization. However, in many settings, training gradually became divorced from the "business" side of the organization, focusing on function-serving rather than business-serving goals (Pepitone, 1995). This disconnect is often prevalent more than 30 years later.

During this phase there was a mounting awareness that a skill and knowledge focus was insufficient in itself. Behaviors were also important. Instructional design encouraged trainers to build behavior and skill demonstrations into their training interventions. Training was now often conceptualized in terms of the behaviors that a skilled employee should demonstrate.

The third phase began in the late 1970s when a number of factors began to force a change on the training and development field. Training practitioners became interested in the psychology of learning, systems theory, and organization development. Evaluation assumed a more im-

portant role. Trainers began to take non-instructional issues into account, such as the influence of supervisors and organizational culture. Organizationally, the human resources and training functions began to overlap. The training and human resource development functions were often merged into one department in many cases. Many organizations and professional associations mandated a specific number of training hours per year for employees.

Training, for the most part, was now regarded as an integral and necessary function of the organization. During this period, training departments also began to shift their focus from information and behaviors to performance and the accomplishment of goals. This focus on performance was paralleled by an interest in evaluating transfer and assessing whether training enabled employees to perform more effectively in the work place. In 1986 the National Society for Performance and Instruction published *Introduction to Performance Technology* and began to promote performance technology as the primary domain of the training profession.

The fourth and current phase emerged in the early 1990s. Managers in the training and performance function now recognize the need to demonstrate a strong commitment to performance improvement and to achieve their goals by collaborating with other functions, such as organization development. The interventions likely to be recommended have expanded from traditional training products (i.e., courses, job aids, and self-study products) to solution systems that match performance-based interventions to specific organizational needs.

Professional training managers of today are concerned with factors such as performance and measurable impact, return on investment, cross functional collaboration, customer needs, relationship management, effective use of technology, and the challenge to continuously upgrade the skills of employees in a knowledge economy. They rely upon an expanded range of interventions to enhance performance, including action learning, knowledge management, communities of practice, continuous improvement, and building a learning organization. Evaluation is focused on assessing the contribution to bottom-line results and organizational goals.

Langdon and Whiteside (1997) observe that what was once a respected practice or craft has now become a discipline. In its evolution from training to training and performance, the field has expanded its scope and range of activities exponentially in response to the demands of the organizations it serves. Even practitioners who joined the field in its

third phase of development find the changes enormous and their knowledge and skill base inadequate. Content knowledge is no longer the predominant objective. Analysis, evaluation, change management, and the use of multiple interventions are the key activities of the modern training and performance function.

Forces of Change in the Field

This section examines the forces of change in the training and performance field since the publication of the first IBSTPI training manager competencies 14 years ago. The changes in the training and development field since the late-1980s have not affected all countries and organizations in the same way. They are particularly conspicuous, however, in large organizations where training managers find themselves facing a multitude of issues not previously considered to be their concern.

The term *large organization* typically refers to major corporations, government departments, or the military. These organizations have training units with large staffs working on all aspects of training and performance. This book focuses primarily on large organizations such as these. Nonetheless, much also applies to medium and small organizations, albeit on a smaller scale.

Organizational size is manifested in a number of ways. For global organizations with employees located in many countries, size results in varying cultures, traditions and pressures. Even when an organization is located in a single country, but has multiple offices, there are typically important differences among these offices that impact the work of the training manager and in turn the competencies demonstrated.

There are six key forces that have precipitated change within the training function. These are: (1) the shift in focus from training to performance, an important phenomenon introduced in the previous section; (2) the drive for financial accountability, a factor that affects all facets of the training function; (3) the information and technology explosion; (4) globalization; (5) organizational restructuring; and (6) the professionalization of training personnel. Each of these forces of change will be explored here.

The Shift from Training to Performance

The primary role of the training department in the 1980s (during phase three) was the development and delivery of classroom courses. On-the-job training was also an important task in many service and manufacturing environments. Training courses fell into three broad categories: 1) technical training (e.g., how to program software in C++); 2) personal development and communication skills training (e.g., how to deliver an effective presentation); and 3) management development or executive education. Most courses could be expected to have a shelf life of approximately two years. Over the past 14 years, the shelf life of courseware has shortened dramatically. Many technical training courses are obsolete within months because of changes in technology, legal requirements, or business processes. There is also a demand for customization rather than a "one size fits all" solution. Subgroups within an organization, for example, may request that the standard management development program be tailored to their specific issues and needs.

In the 1980s, training managers were likely to ask, "What type of course do you want us to develop?" Today the question is "What performance problem do you need to solve, and how can we help?" Although this shift in focus from training to performance is perhaps more noticeable in North America than elsewhere, training managers everywhere are under pressure to deliver "need-to-have" solutions and to eliminate "nice-to-have" offerings. Activities and outputs must be aligned with the goals of the organization. Unless proposed interventions have a demonstrable effect on performance, they are unlikely to be funded (Brinkerhoff & Gill, 1994). Consequently, the emphasis has moved from developing formal training courses to providing performance-based and customized solutions. This evolution from training to performance is reflected in training literature published since the first IBSTPI training manager competencies were published.

Fourteen years ago training managers tended to oversee the training schedule and the work of the trainers. Some undertook course design and delivery. Today training managers are responsible for providing a broader range of services (Rossett & Sheldon, 2001). These services may be organization-wide or they may be focused solutions for teams or small business groups. In many cases, the services are developed and im-

plemented in partnership with other functions. For example, a training staff may conduct an analysis of the sales force performance jointly with the department of organizational development and human resource development. Together they may identify a range of solutions to significantly improve sales performance and then implement these solutions. The solutions might encompass various types of training, the development of supporting web sites, and the establishment and maintenance of communities of practice.

The training manager in 2003 is required to be much more of a strategic player than was the case in the 1980s. In Britain, the need to insure that training is closely aligned to business strategy has been identified as one of the most significant issues facing the profession (Institute of Personnel and Development, 2000). Rather than providing training at the request of other managers, training managers in the twenty-first century are more likely to be proactive and initiate interventions on the basis of organizational strategy and goals. In the final analysis, they must be able to give a clear answer to the question "How does T&D help this business make, sell, and distribute products that satisfy customers and earn profits?" (van Adelsberg and Trolley, 1999, p. 10).

The Drive for Financial Accountability

There was a time when training departments could develop and deliver courses with relatively little accountability to higher organizational management. This was evident in the approach to evaluation. Post-course reaction surveys were the norm, and often evaluation findings that did exist were not reported to stakeholders, nor were they used to improve future training (Phillips, 1998). Very few training managers developed metrics that demonstrated a return on the organization's investment in training. Budgets were provided routinely, and departments were rarely required to justify their existence.

During the 1990s organizations everywhere, in the United States and abroad, became increasingly cost conscious. This preoccupation with bottom line results profoundly affected the operations of training managers. They were increasingly being asked to add to productivity, but were being given fewer resources with which to work. They were under pressure to be profitable and pursue a competitive strategy. They were held as financially accountable as any other function in the organization.

These expectations continue today. Training mangers are still being asked to provide evidence of a return on the organization's investment

and are evaluated on their contributions to organizational results. Failure to demonstrate a positive impact on the organization often results in a significant downsizing of the training function.

This emphasis on accountability is forcing training managers to identify new metrics to demonstrate the value of their units (van Adelsberg and Trolley, 1999; Rossett and Sheldon, 2001). Providing a stable array of course offerings and reporting only attendance (or enrollments) as a measure of impact are no longer acceptable. Higher level management demands more robust financial evidence of the effects of expenditures on employee training and development. This may mean training managers must establish *direct* relationships between training and improved profits or services. Alternatively, this may mean that the training function has to pay its own way. In this case, the training department would no longer be funded as a cost center, but instead treated as a profit center. Operating on a fee-for-service basis, it would then need to cover salaries and overhead costs by selling its services to the larger organization. At the same time, the training department is often forced to compete with external consulting groups to become the preferred provider in order to survive.

Many organizations now adopt reengineering and downsizing strategies as a means of increasing profitability. This is particularly noticeable in periods of low productivity. In some cases, training and development responsibilities are given to line managers, thus reducing the size of the central training group. There has also been a reduction in personal development training. In some large companies only the top performers at each organizational level receive more than the core leadership and management development training. This practice is known as differential investment. If this trend continues, future training managers will have to focus more time and resources on the top performers across the organization, and less on those most in need of development. Budget reductions, no doubt, are responsible for some of these changes. Demands for evidence of return on investment have brought many training programs under scrutiny, resulting in a decrease in course offerings.

In some organizations, training is no longer regarded as a core function, but one that can be purchased on an as-needed basis. This outsourcing mindset has led to the drastic reduction—and in some cases the elimination—of the training function. As a result, many training departments have been reduced to a skeleton staff of generalists acting as brokers between the internal customers and external consulting groups who provide a range of training services and products. These "training

brokerages" allow an organization to totally outsource the training function. This phenomenon can be observed in Europe, Australia, South Africa, and in a limited way, in the United States as well.

The Information and Technology Explosion

The speed and timeliness of the dissemination of information has markedly increased during the past 14 years since the first IBSTPI training manager competencies were published. Global wireless networks, e-mail, and 24-hour cable news have combined to make information freely and widely available across organizations. Decision-making is expected to be much more rapid than in the 1980s. Today's training managers are confronted with information overload and data management demands barely imagined when the first set of competencies was developed in 1989.

In the late 1980s, as today, technology implied computers, but the applications varied greatly from the sophistication of today. Leading edge companies employed computer-based training, at times in the form of interactive video disc. Today, technology is synonymous with the Internet to many. Training departments in every country have integrated the World Wide Web into their activities. Web-based strategies have revolutionized the way training is designed, delivered and managed. The training function in many organizations is rapidly moving away from a paper intensive, classroom-based, instructor-led orientation. The focus now is on designing solutions customized to specific performance problems, electronically delivered to the job site just in time to make a difference. Training managers must be skilled and up-to-date in computerized training methodologies previously unanticipated.

These changes have taken place with great rapidity. In 1999, the term *e-learning* was virtually unknown! Today, in 2003, training managers around the world are involved with e-learning to some degree, and hundreds of learners in different time zones can be quickly trained using technology available throughout most parts of the world. With the use of mobile wireless devices for "training" (*m-learning*), the difference between training and knowledge management is becoming increasingly blurred. The role of the training manager is also expanding as many assume responsibility for the management of knowledge through the more effective use of technology (Rosenberg, 2001; Rossett & Sheldon, 2001).

In many organizations, management is working towards the goal of

delivering all training using e-learning strategies. These organizations subscribe to the popular belief that technology-based interventions are more cost effective because they take less time than classroom training and do not require employees to leave the work place. Although technology does offer the potential for faster, cheaper and better training, few training managers deliver on the promise because they lack the budget, personnel, or the advanced design and multimedia skills needed to produce effective e-learning products. With continuing demands to be cutting edge and cost effective, training managers will be pressured to move away from classroom training in favor of e-learning for the foreseeable future. It will, however, take considerable effort to "convert the hype into substantive results" (Rossett, 2002, p.7).

Globalization

Globalization has significantly affected the training and performance field in large organizations since the mid-1980s. The training functions in government departments or small to medium sized businesses are less likely to be directly affected by this trend. Fourteen years ago, when the first training manager competencies were published, few training managers were concerned with curriculum development on a global scale or scheduling courses for tens of thousands of learners in many countries speaking many languages. Cross-cultural issues exerted minimal influence on planning, course development, or choice of delivery medium.

Globalization and the availability of Internet technology during the 1990s altered the scope of training managers' roles, challenged their management skills, and stretched their human and financial resources. The world has become smaller because of the global networking among organizations. Training managers in multi-national companies no longer operate within national boundaries. They must manage virtual work teams whose members are located in many regions of the world, representing diverse cultural groups. They now find themselves responsible for a global learning community and the training of personnel for assignments in many different countries. Cross-cultural training has become core content in many executive development courses. Interpersonal communications training for employees of all types is impacted by ongoing interactions with a multicultural clientele.

Training managers in global organizations must understand the cultural implications of learning and performance interventions. Training

curricula have to be adapted, materials translated, and delivery systems chosen with cultural differences in mind. Volkl and Castelein (2002) highlight the role of cultural values in European and North American organizations on the decision to adopt e-learning, for example.

The growing number of mergers between companies in different countries has further compounded the cultural issues with which training managers must contend. These alliances not only bring new resources into an organization, but they highlight the idiosyncrasies of learning across cultures (Hoecklin, 1995). Increasingly, training managers have a sphere of influence that extends beyond their own national borders. They must now deal with issues and ways of doing business that vary by country. There are great variations in workplace regulations, labor law, discrimination law, technology availability, and organizational structure among countries in different parts of the world. Head, Haug, Krabbenhoft, and Ma (2000) point out that this requires a greatly expanded knowledge base, yet few training managers are adequately prepared for this level of global responsibility.

Organizational Restructuring

Fourteen years ago training managers were likely to be mid-level managers, reporting to senior management through the human resources department (Pepitone, 1995). As well as being removed from the decision makers in the organization's hierarchy, the training group was likely to be physically distant, positioned well away from where the real action occurs. In some cases, training departments were housed in different buildings from the central offices, perhaps even in different cities (Brinkerhoff & Apking, 2001). In the twenty-first century there are often a variety of training managers at different levels of the organization. Some are likely to be graded as senior managers, directors or vice-presidents. Training departments are more likely to be separate units, rather than reporting to human resources. Many large organizations have introduced matrix structures that result in staff reporting both horizontally and vertically within the organization. Thus, a training manager might report to a training executive, as well as to an operations manager. Training managers are now more likely to be located geographically closer to their key customers. In this way, they can play a more strategic role in the organization. Robert Mager, in 1994, went so far as to predict that the training manager role will continue to assume more im-

portance and eventually may become a stepping-stone to the position of chief executive officer (Filipczak, 1994).

The boundaries between support functions were clear in the 1980s. Over the past decade, however, it has become more difficult to delineate the boundaries between human resource development, organization development, training and development, and performance technology. This blurring of these departmental boundaries is also reflected in the interdisciplinary nature of professional associations, conferences and professional journals.

Many organizations are currently experimenting with a variety of restructuring arrangements. Many functions are being combined. This is often driven not only by financial considerations, but by a desire to optimize the skill sets of the various functions. In some organizations in Australia and Japan, for example, training managers are responsible for the human resource recruiting function, as well as management development. In other cases, training staffs are required to develop human resource generalist skills when the human resource department is merged with training and development. In South Africa, legislation governing training and development practice has resulted in the merging of human resource and training roles in many organizations.

The Professionalization of Training Personnel

The personnel in the training function have changed considerably over the past 14 years. Historically, trainers as well as training managers were content experts rather than training experts (Pepitone, 1995). Many of these persons had made short-term, lateral moves from elsewhere in the organization. Although they were committed to their training roles, they often lacked design and delivery knowledge and skills. In many cases, training managers were appointed from the ranks of managers who were approaching retirement. Consequently, senior management seldom regarded training personnel as suitable for promotion to general executive positions in the organization (Odiorne & Rummler, 1988). In general, training personnel were viewed as isolated from the mainstream of the organization.

Today the department is less likely to be referred to as the training department and *training manager* is rarely the position name. The training manager in 2003 is known by a variety of titles. Some examples of these are chief learning officer; director of learning, management and performance; manager of human performance technology; director of perfor-

mance improvement; manager of design and development; and learning solutions manager. In contrast to the previous reliance on relatively low-level staff who had drifted into training from another function, the department is now more likely to be staffed by a cadre of professionals with formal training in adult education, instructional design, human resource development or organization development (Filipczak, 1994). Moreover, current training managers are likely to also have business and management expertise and experience that enable them to address technical and financial issues of concern to the organization.

Training managers in large organizations may also hire specialists with such skills as information technology, database creation, knowledge management, and industrial psychology. As a team, they manage the complete learning process, from initial performance assessments to long-term evaluations of the impact of training services on both the organization's and the customers' goals.

It is now common for external consultants to support some of the training department functions. In the 1980s, a relatively small number of organizations used external contractors to deliver in-house training. By 1998, according to the American Society of Training & Development (ASTD) estimates, 70% of organizations in the United States were using external trainers to deliver some of their classroom training (Bassi & Van Buren, 1998). The 2001 ASTD Industry Report identified a reversal of this trend beginning three years earlier (Van Buren, 2001). Van Buren suggests in this report that organizations now spend less on external consultants than they previously had because they want services that are more customized, individualized, timely, and less expensive than consultants can generally provide. This decreasing expenditure may also be a function of the unsettled global economic climate since 2000 that has forced training managers to bring design, development, and delivery back inside the organization in order to reduce costs.

Conclusions

Training managers belong to a global community, and while there is great diversity in how they perform their roles, there is no doubt that these roles have changed over the past 14 years. Training managers are now immersed in every aspect of their organizations and they tend to work more closely with the business operations they serve. They are no longer solely focused only on the training organization, but take a strate-

gic leadership role in the organization at large. They are able to establish vertical and horizontal alliances to gain support for the training function (Brinkerhoff & Gill, 1994). They view themselves as managers of organizational brainpower, rather than developers of individual brainpower (Rossett & Sheldon, 2001). They view themselves as change agents, rather than administrators and logistics managers. They make significant contributions to many aspects of the organization, beyond those specifically related to training per se. Today's training managers demonstrate considerably more business thinking and operational understanding than did those of even a decade ago.

The role of the modern training manager has changed to such an extent that the 1989 IBSTPI training manager competencies now seem outdated. In addition, some questioned their applicability outside of the United States. Consequently, new ones are warranted. This book provides a detailed description and discussion of these new training manager competencies. While it does not provide a step-by-step guide to using the competencies in the work place, this book does serve to enhance the training manager's knowledge base.

2

The 2003 IBSTPI Training Manager Competencies and Their Development

This chapter lays the foundation for the development of the new IBSTPI training manager competencies. First, it reviews past efforts in training manager competency modeling. Then it examines the current IBSTPI training manager competency project by discussing the IBSTPI competency development model and the assumptions underlying its use. Finally, the competencies themselves are presented.

A Brief History of Training Manager Competency Modeling

Possibly the first systematic attempt to determine more precisely what a training manager does and what competencies are needed was made by Belman and Bliek in 1959. It was not until more than a decade later, in the 1970s, that the literature began to address the roles of training managers again. Nadler's (1970) training manager model was among the early explorations of the subject. He saw the work of the training manager as providing training, development, and education, although he did prefer the term *HRD manager* to *T&D manager*. He identified three major roles for training managers: administrator, consultant, and learning specialist. Nadler's work influenced thinking about training managers for the next 20 years and also provided the basis for future model and competency development efforts.

In the late 1970s, there was further exploration of training manager

competencies. The American Society of Training & Development (ASTD) began its sponsorship of three significant training manager competency studies.

The first ASTD study is the *Study of Professional Training and Development Roles* by Pinto and Walker, published in 1978. There they define the training manager role in terms of 14 activities:

1. Needs analysis and diagnosis
2. Determining appropriate training approaches
3. Program design and development
4. Developing material resources
5. Managing internal resources
6. Managing external resources
7. Individual development, planning, and counseling
8. Job or performance-related training
9. Conducting classroom training
10. Group and organization development
11. Training research
12. Managing working relationships with managers and clients
13. Managing the training and development function
14. Professional self development

The following year, the Ontario Society for Training and Development (1979) published a study that identifies five competencies: administration, communications, evaluation, person/organization interface, and manpower planning. An additional output of their research is a planning guide that served as a self-evaluation tool enabling practitioners to evaluate their strengths and development needs against the competencies.

The second ASTD study is McLagan and McCullough's *Models for Excellence,* published in 1983. It identifies 15 human resource development roles, including the manager of training and development. Thirty-one competencies are identified, of which only 18 are considered critical for training managers. The authors comment, "This study moves training and development one step closer to being a profession. We've helped define the field with more rigor and specificity than ever before and helped clarify its body of knowledge" (McLagan & McCullough, 1983, p. 24).

In 1985 Laird further developed Nadler's 1970 model. First, he expands the original three roles (administrator, consultant, and learning special-

ist) into four. He accomplishes this by dividing the learning specialist role into two: designer of learning experiences and instructor. Then he identifies related competencies. Laird posits that a training manager has to be expert in all four areas. His competencies are, in most cases, applicable to all four roles.

The question as to whether there are competencies unique *only* to training managers has been addressed periodically. Nadler and Wiggs (1986), for example, suggest that training managers need a special knowledge base. They maintain that it is especially important that training managers understand the nature of an organization as a system.

The third ASTD sponsored study, *Models for HRD Practice,* was published in 1989. In this study, McLagan (1989) presents HRD as a merger of the fields of training, career development, and organization development. She then builds upon the 1983 ASTD competency list to reflect this new view of the field. She identifies in her study 13 roles and 39 areas of competency. New competencies include areas such as coaching skills, relationship building, electronic systems skills, and visionary skills.

In the late 1980s, Hale (1991) identified training manager competencies through the literature and the use of expert panels. She also explored the question of whether the skills required and tasks performed by training managers and managers of other functions differ. Hale's research provided the basis for the original IBSTPI training manager competencies in 1989. Consequently, it serves as the most critical foundation for this new list. (This research is discussed in more detail in chapter 6.)

Exploration continued throughout the 1990s. McCoy's 1993 study proposes a set of competencies for those managing small human resource development departments. He identifies four major interdisciplinary areas and the competencies for each area. His four skill areas are business skills, managerial skills, human resource development skills, and personal attributes. However, only the human resource development competencies are relevant to training managers. Others are applicable to managers of any function.

The most recent ASTD sponsored study, *ASTD Models for Human Performance Improvement,* is written by Rothwell and was published in 1996. His study identifies the roles, competencies, and outputs of human resource development practitioners from a human performance improvement perspective. These competencies are aligned with four primary roles: analyst, intervention specialist, change manager, and evaluator.

In spite of this body of literature, when IBSTPI reviewed its 1989 training manager competencies in 1999, the organization concluded not only that a major revision was warranted, but that the field had progressed to the point where another examination of the issue would be useful. While the original 15 IBSTPI competencies were still considered to be generally relevant to the training manager role, several were now of lesser importance. More importantly, there were significant gaps in the list of competencies. For example, the terms *knowledge management* and *e-learning* were unknown in 1989. Likewise, there was no mention of the need to align the training function with the mission of the organization. Networking and cross-functional alliances were not discussed, nor was ethics. Clearly the 1989 competencies do not reflect the changed organizational environment in which training is now situated. There is also the issue of cross-cultural relevance. Peterson (1997) warned against the belief that competencies considered appropriate in the United States are applicable in other regions of the world. This, too, was a major concern of IBSTPI.

The IBSTPI Competency Development Model

The Nature of Competence and Competencies

IBSTPI competency development efforts are part of the well-established history of performance-based program design.[1] Nonetheless, there are differing views of the nature of a competency and its relationship to professional competence itself. While some mistake competencies for personality traits or characteristics or for styles and values (Parry, 1998), most see personal characteristics and aptitudes as foundational to skill and knowledge demonstration, but not inherent to the nature of competence. It is generally agreed that while competence is the state of being well qualified, competency statements are descriptions of

1. This movement has various origins. One was the demand for clearly definable measures of program effectiveness in teacher education programs (Dick, Watson & Kaufman, 1981). Competency-based education applied the then innovative systems design techniques and elements of mastery learning (Young & Van Mondfrans, 1972). These new programs coincided with the work of McClelland (1973), which outlines methods for identifying competencies that provide non-biased ways of predicting job performance. McClelland's competency approach was applied in the organizational human resource functions of employee selection, career development, and performance appraisal and development.

the critical ways in which such competence is demonstrated. IBSTPI defines a competency as: a knowledge, skill, or attitude that enables one to effectively perform the activities of a given occupation or function to the standards expected in employment.

This orientation combines two of McLagan's (1997) approaches to competency; the first identifies job tasks and the second views competencies as an accumulation of knowledge, skills and attitudes. The IBSTPI competencies are statements of behavior, not personality traits or beliefs, but they do often reflect attitudes. They are correlated with performance on a job and are typically measured against commonly accepted standards. Moreover, there is an implication that the IBSTPI competencies can be developed through training.

The IBSTPI Generic Competency Development Model

Marrelli (1998) defines a competency model as "the organization of identified competencies into a conceptual framework that enables the people in an organization to understand, talk about, and apply the competencies . . . an organizing scheme" (p. 10). Figure 2.1 shows the generic IBSTPI competency development model.

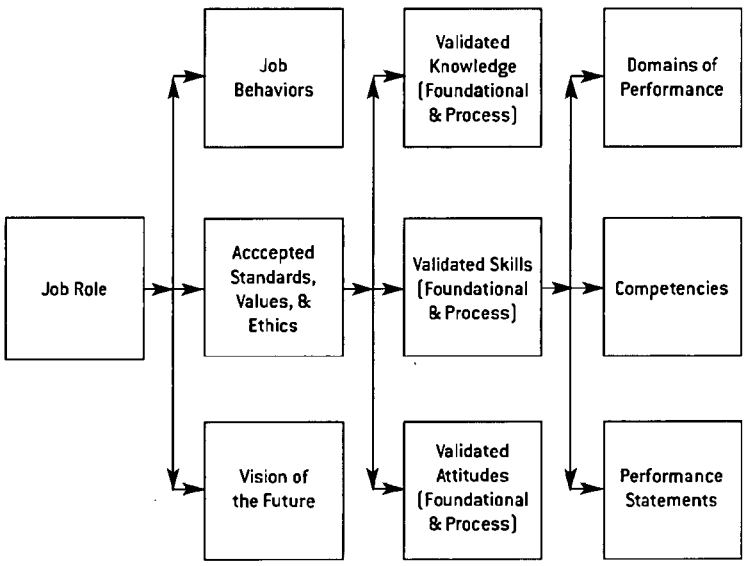

Figure 2.1. The generic IBSTPI competency development model.

A set of competencies, such as the IBSTPI training manager competencies, relates to a job role. The role definition is typically a preliminary step to competency definition. Competencies totally unrelated to actual jobs are usually impossible to use effectively. Job roles, however, can be defined generically or they can be customized to reflect a given work context (Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999). The IBSTPI training manager competencies reflect a more generalized view of the training manager's job. Consequently, a specific position with a given organization may relate to only a portion of these competencies.

Job roles, however, must be interpreted further to facilitate competency definition. Specific job behaviors must be identified. In addition, the performance and ethical standards and values commonly used in the field to evaluate such behaviors must also be determined. Finally, one must clarify a vision of the field. This vision may be the result of interpretations of current research and emerging trends, or it may be the result of societal or business pressures. Job behaviors, vision, and standards provide the major input into the identification and validation of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes critical to a particular job role.

Structurally, the IBSTPI competency model consists of three components: domains, competencies, and performance statements. Competency statements in the IBSTPI format are short, general descriptions of complex efforts. One example is, "Communicate effectively in written, oral, and visual form." Additional detail is needed in this and all other competencies to more fully explain what is entailed in the activity. These explanations are provided via performance statements. A full demonstration of a given competency would then consist of a series of more specific behaviors. For example, the communication competency is partially supported by the performance statement, "Use language appropriate to the audience and context." Competencies and performance statements are structurally the same, differing only in the level of behavior specificity. Performance statements are not, however, simply process descriptions.

Even though competencies are general, they can, nonetheless, be categorized into even larger domains of activity. This competency modeling tactic is recommended by Spencer and Spencer (1993). The domains serve to highlight the relationships among clusters of competencies.

The IBSTPI training manager competencies are clustered into domains that highlight key areas of job activity. In addition, there is an initial professional foundations domain. The domains do not imply the use of a particular management process. They do facilitate competency

summaries and theme identification, even as the performance statements facilitate detailed analysis. All levels—domain, competency, and performance statement—can be used in program design.

Implementing the Model for Training Managers

The IBSTPI competency development model provides overall direction for the competency development process. In actual operation, there are three major phases used to update the ID competencies, each of which is fundamentally an empirical procedure. The phases are: (1) identification of foundational research, (2) competency drafting, and (3) competency validation and rewriting.

Phase I: Identification of foundational research. The previous set of IBSTPI training manager competencies served as the foundation of the current set. This 1989 set of competencies was based principally upon the 1980s research of Hale (1991). In addition, the results of recent training manager research served as input. Basic premises and tentative assumptions were articulated and agreed upon. A new base list was developed using these sources.

Phase II: Competency drafting. The IBSTPI board of directors served as an expert focus group that analyzed and debated the base list. Competencies and performance statements were rewritten by persons with particular expertise in a given area. The new list was analyzed, debated, and rewritten several times to reflect the evolving input and to establish format consistency.

Phase III: Competency validation and rewriting. Once a list was established that had full board approval, a survey instrument was devised for general web-based distribution. These instruments were administered to instructional design practitioners, academics, and managers in diverse geographical locations and work environments. The final list was modified to reflect the input of this group. Whenever the decision was split, the board made the ultimate decision based upon its collective experience and vision.

Assumptions of the IBSTPI Training Manager Competencies

The new training manager competencies are based upon ten assumptions, seven of which are basic to all IBSTPI competency standards. They speak to the IBSTPI competency development process. These as-

sumptions, combined with the three assumptions specific to the nature of the training-manager role discussed in chapter 1, are critical to one's interpretation of the competencies.

Basic IBSTPI Competency Assumptions

The first four basic assumptions relate to the inclusiveness of a set of IBSTPI competencies. These assumptions are:

Assumption 1: IBSTPI competencies are comprehensive.
Assumption 2: Few persons, regardless of their levels of expertise, are able to successfully demonstrate all of the competencies listed.
Assumption 3: IBSTPI competencies pertain to persons working in a wide range of job settings.
Assumption 4: IBSTPI competencies should be meaningful and useful worldwide.

Any IBSTPI competency list is intentionally constructed very broadly in order to be relevant to persons working in many industries and in organizations of many sizes. While one could argue that IBSTPI competencies are universally applicable, it is probably more accurate to say that they are most germane to business environments or to the business arm of other work settings, such as education.

However, if one were to compare the work of a given individual to a list of IBSTPI competencies and performance statements, it would be surprising if he or she demonstrated all of these tasks on a given job. This phenomenon is not only reflective of the increasing complexity of all jobs in the training and performance improvement field, but also of the important influence a particular work environment and organizational culture has upon particular jobs.

One consequence of both job complexity and unique approaches that given organizations have to structuring their work is often that particular functions are divided among individuals. This results in a type of job specialization that is more typical in today's market than it was in previous decades. The training manager competencies (as was true of the IBSTPI instructional design competencies) are also viewed in terms of typical job specialties (see chapter 5).

IBSTPI's major effort to construct job standards that are meaningful on a global basis is of particular note. Today the training and performance

improvement field is one that is practiced in all parts of the world. Even though particular aspects of practice vary, and certainly terminology varies from country to country, there are nonetheless fundamental principles and commonalities that are critical to all.

Global applicability of IBSTPI competencies is achieved through the intimate involvement of professionals throughout the world in the entire development process. The IBSTPI Board itself is representative of many markets and care is taken in the competency validation process to insure input from persons in every major geographical sector of the training field.

Users may find that the competencies have to be adapted to their specific situations at times, since they are written to be as inclusive as possible. In fact, such adaptation is encouraged and reflected in the next basic competency assumption:

Assumption 5: IBSTPI competencies are generic and amenable to customization.

It is assumed that when the competencies are put to use in actual work environments they may be modified to blend into that particular culture. For example, particular language may be changed to reflect local custom. This does not distort the original intent or the validity of the competencies.

Finally, all IBSTPI competencies are written not solely as reflections of current practice, but rather as professional standards. The last two basic assumptions speak to this phenomenon.

Assumption 6: IBSTPI competencies define the manner in which the training and performance improvement field should be practiced.

Assumption 7: IBSTPI competencies reflect societal and disciplinary values and ethics.

The IBSTPI competencies take positions about the training field. One can find competencies that reflect trends, emerging issues, and particular philosophies. These are typically characteristic of the times in which the competencies were developed. For example, in the training manager competencies, the field of knowledge management is addressed. It is recognized that not all training managers at this time are involved in knowledge management. Nonetheless, the competency is included be-

cause of the position that it is an important and emerging job function. Likewise the importance of cultural diversity permeates the training manager competencies and performance statements.

The 2003 IBSTPI Training Manager Domains, Competencies and Performance Statements

There are 14 newly updated IBSTPI training manager competencies. These competencies are clustered into four general domains and are supported by 88 performance statements. The domain groupings serve organizational and conceptual functions and suggest the scope and interrelatedness of the job tasks of training managers. The entire list of competencies and performance statements follows.

The 2003 IBSTPI Training Manager Standards

PROFESSIONAL FOUNDATIONS

1. *Communicate effectively in written, oral, and visual form.*
   a. Prepare messages that are clear, concise, and grammatically correct.
   b. Use language appropriate to the audience and context.
   c. Use the language of the organization to communicate training and performance concepts.
   d. Simplify and summarize complex information.
   e. Use interpersonal communication skills to establish and maintain effective working relationships.
   f. Use active listening skills in all situations.
   g. Use consulting skills to clarify issues.
   h. Use negotiation skills to achieve goals.
   i. Facilitate meetings effectively.
   j. Deliver presentations that engage and persuade.
   k. Use visuals to inform and motivate.
   l. Use technology to enhance communication.

2. *Comply with established ethical and legal standards.*
   a. Comply with organizational and professional codes of ethics.
   b. Comply with ethical and legal requirements for confidentiality and anonymity.

c. Avoid internal and external conflicts of interest.
d. Comply with the organization's proprietary information, electronic security, and property protection regulations.
e. Comply with the legal requirements of copyright and other intellectual property laws.
f. Adhere to legal procedures to protect the rights of the organization, employees, and customers.

3. Maintain networks to advocate for and support the training and performance function.

a. Establish cross-functional alliances within the organization.
b. Maintain industry-specific contacts for benchmarking.
c. Establish ongoing relationships with suppliers and customers.
d. Represent and promote your organization within training and other professional communities.

4. Update and improve professional and business knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

a. Keep up-to-date with and apply relevant developments in training, performance, and related fields.
b. Maintain knowledge of the products, services, and operations of the organization.
c. Keep up-to-date with developments in the business of the organization.
d. Keep up-to-date with customer requirements.
e. Continuously update technology skills.
f. Maintain awareness of social, cultural, and political trends and issues and their implications for the organization.
g. Participate in professional activities.

PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS AND PLANNING

5. Develop and monitor a strategic plan.

a. Align the training function with the organization's vision and mission.
b. Use advisory groups to review plans and assist with their implementation.
c. Establish metrics to monitor the training function's performance against its strategic plan.
d. Review the strategic plan periodically and adjust training goals as required.

6. *Use performance analysis to improve the organization.*
   a. Act as an internal consultant to identify performance problems and opportunities.
   b. Use a systems perspective to analyze performance problems.
   c. Determine the consequences of not taking action to solve performance problems.
   d. Recommend cost-effective performance solutions.
   e. Advocate and use non-instructional solutions when appropriate.
   f. Insure the use of analysis to determine knowledge and skill requirements.

7. *Plan and promote organizational change.*
   a. Define expectations and establish criteria for success.
   b. Determine the potential political, economic, social, cultural, and emotional impact of performance solutions.
   c. Inform stakeholders of the benefits, risks, conditions for success, time lines, and costs of proposed solutions.
   d. Solicit confirmation and support for proposed changes.
   e. Promote lifelong learning as a continuous improvement process for the organization.

DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT

8. *Insure the application of instructional design principles.*
   a. Adapt design processes to meet the needs of the organization.
   b. Insure that design solutions reflect the characteristics of the organization.
   c. Insure that design solutions reflect the diversity of learner characteristics in the organization.
   d. Promote the effective use of instructional design processes.

9. *Use technology to enhance the training function.*
   a. Analyze existing and emerging technologies and their uses in the organization.
   b. Use technology to support the administration of the training function.
   c. Use technology to design, deliver, and administer training interventions.
   d. Promote effective e-learning solutions.

e. Select technology that is compatible with the organization and the training role.
f. Model the appropriate use of technology within the organization.

10. *Evaluate training and performance interventions.*
a. Develop comprehensive evaluation policies and strategies for the training function.
b. Document direct and indirect costs of training and performance solutions.
c. Document the impact of training and performance solutions.
d. Use evaluation data to enhance the quality of training and performance solutions.
e. Disseminate evaluation data to all project stakeholders.
f. Evaluate and revise project processes and procedures.

ADMINISTRATION

11. *Apply leadership skills to the training function.*
a. Position the training function as a strategic partner in achieving business goals.
b. Develop organizational support for training strategies and solutions.
c. Market the training function.
d. Insure that training services and products reflect organizational philosophy, culture, and brand identity.
e. Recruit and select training staff.
f. Develop staff to enhance their professional skills and the training function.
g. Create and build teams to meet project goals.
h. Cultivate a sense of ownership within project teams.
i. Identify and minimize the effects of internal barriers on achieving project goals.

12. *Apply management skills to the training function.*
a. Model a customer-focused business style.
b. Manage relationships with internal and external consultants.
c. Manage outsourcing.
d. Anticipate and resolve conflicts.
e. Manage and direct training personnel.
f. Manage and direct multiple projects.
g. Deliver products and services on a timely basis.

13. *Apply business skills to the training function.*
    a. Manage the training function as a model of effective business practice.
    b. Promote the business case for performance interventions.
    c. Develop budgets.
    d. Manage financial and material resources.
    e. Maintain a business data collection, retrieval, and reporting system.
    f. Maintain and schedule training facilities and equipment.
    g. Publish materials and documents in a professional, economical, and timely manner.

14. *Implement knowledge management solutions.*
    a. Promote knowledge management within the training function and the organization.
    b. Partner in the establishment of processes to gather, store, retrieve, and share information.
    c. Establish processes to reuse and add value to existing knowledge.
    d. Establish knowledge-sharing communities.
    e. Use knowledge management solutions to integrate learning into the work environment.

3

Discussion and Analysis

The updated view of the role of the modern training manager is one that reflects the increasing sophistication of the training business, as well as the pressures facing contemporary organizations. This chapter explores the dimensions of each of the new competencies and performance statements in light of both this sophistication and these pressures.

The four IBSTPI domains of competency—*professional foundations, performance analysis and planning, design and development,* and *administration*—present a view of what the successful training manager can and does perform on the job.

Professional Foundations

The first competency domain is *professional foundations,* and four competency areas fall within its scope. They are: effective communication, ethical and legal compliance, internal and external networking, and updating professional and business knowledge

In the 1989 publication, the IBSTPI training manager competencies were not grouped into domains. A comparison of the original list with the current updated version shows that communication effectiveness is the only competency in common in the professional foundations domain. In the past decade issues of ethical and legal compliance have as-

sumed a much greater significance in the United States, and in Europe many countries have had to develop new legal training programs to comply with European Union laws and human resource policies. The importance of networks and the need to continuously update one's business skill and knowledge are also a function of the expanding role of the training manager.

Competency 1: Communicate effectively in written, oral, and visual form. The 12 performance statements supporting this competency are:

a. Prepare messages that are clear, concise and grammatically correct.
b. Use language appropriate to the audience and context.
c. Use the language of the organization to communicate training and performance concepts.
d. Simplify and summarize complex information.
e. Use interpersonal communication skills to establish and maintain effective working relationships.
f. Use active listening skills in all situations.
g. Use consulting skills to clarify issues.
h. Use negotiation skills to achieve goals.
i. Facilitate meetings effectively.
j. Deliver presentations that engage and persuade.
k. Use visuals to inform and motivate.
l. Use technology to enhance communication.

Communication is the first competency in the professional foundations domain and it has more performance statements supporting it than any of the others in this domain. This is indicative of the overall importance of communication, regardless of the size, culture, function, or location of the training manager's organization.

Today, many training managers spend considerably more time communicating (whether it be face-to-face, by telephone, or electronically) than they have in the past, and the communication is typically more complex. Moreover they communicate with a broader range of people. The reasons for this broader range are twofold. First, departments, such as human resource development, organization development, and training and development have common interests and involvement in many of the same projects. Second, multi-functional teams are frequently established as the most effective way to address complex organizational needs. Training managers in geographically dispersed organizations are

also faced with the problems inherent in communicating across cultures and overcoming language barriers.

The widespread use of technologies for communication has added another dimension to this process. E-mail, conference calls, videoconferences, and electronic meetings using software such as Net Meeting are all becoming routine in the business sector. These new technologies make it possible and relatively easy to communicate simultaneously with widely dispersed group of individuals, even when they are located across several time zones. When difficulties arise in these situations, they are often due to losing unspoken communication cues from body language and facial expressions.

Effective training managers are first and foremost skilled internal consultants. They assume the posture of a partner rather than that of the expert. In these consulting roles they work collaboratively with their customers, employing good questioning and diagnostic skills to explore performance issues and identify solutions. They listen. Likewise, they prepare their teams to also serve as internal consultants to the other parts of the organization.

Training managers must be able to communicate training and performance concepts horizontally as well as vertically within the organization without using technical training, organization development or instructional design language. They must use the language of the customer. Training managers often must sell their services or solutions to higher management. Consequently, they must be adept at communicating in the management language of the organization. The ability to communicate using the concepts and terminology of the listener enhances the training manager's credibility throughout the organization.

Meetings are a fact of life in organizations, and training managers spend much of their day in meetings. These may be internal meetings with their teams or they may be external meetings with subject matter experts, cross-functional teams, or other managers. Meetings are the forums in which training managers gather data, present information, exchange ideas, and negotiate. Effective meeting leadership requires expertise in the skills of active listening, discussion facilitation, leading brainstorming sessions, communicating clear goals, conflict resolution, and keeping the meeting on track.

Negotiation skills have assumed greater importance at all organizational levels over the past decade. It is a skill that training managers must master to achieve their goals. Negotiation is closely related to influence and persuasion. In the course of a day, the training manager may

have to negotiate with contractors for reduced fees and with suppliers for more acceptable costs, to persuade management to increase the budget or staff, to influence colleagues to collaborate on a cross-functional intervention, or to persuade team members to support an unpopular decision. The ability to negotiate, reach consensus, and collaborate with others to achieve goals is fundamental to getting things done, particularly in large organizations where training managers are dependent on support from other functional groups. Conflict resolution skills may also be needed to resolve issues with vendors, customers and among team members.

Training managers are constantly communicating information to others within their organizations by presenting strategic plans, proposing interventions, outlining budgets, and reporting results. In many organizations, senior managers prefer that information be presented in a graphical stand-alone format rather than listen to a training manager talk them through a written report. Training managers must therefore be adept at using PowerPoint slides or electronic technologies to capture attention, convey the key elements of their message, and gain support for their proposals. The ever-increasing options in electronic communication will put pressure on training managers to be even more skillful in getting their message across.

Training managers, unlike many others in an organization, interact with all levels and all functions. This requires them to have a high level of proficiency in the communication skills of questioning, listening, proposing, negotiating, collaborating, and managing meetings. They must also be able to provide clear, credible and timely information to all employees.

Competency 2: Comply with established ethical and legal standards. The six performance statements that support this competency are:

a. Comply with organizational and professional codes of ethics.
b. Comply with ethical and legal requirements for confidentiality and anonymity.
c. Avoid internal and external conflicts of interest.
d. Comply with the organization's proprietary information, electronic security, and property protection regulations.
e. Comply with the legal requirements of copyright and other intellectual property laws.
f. Adhere to legal procedures to protect the rights of the organization, employees and customers.

Legal standards provide clear guidance as to how a training manager *must not* act, whereas ethics are normative and provide a set of standards about how training managers *should* act (Ruona & Rusaw, 2001). Unlike the law, ethics constitute a set of general expectations that should govern relevant professional practice and often require considerable judgment in their application. Most professional groups provide a code of ethics to guide professional behavior. The expectation is that practitioners will model the highest standards of behavior. IBSTPI has developed a Code of Ethical Standards for Training Managers (refer to Appendix E). This code addresses the range of issues typically faced by training managers.

Training managers are duty-bound to maintain an up-to-date knowledge of ethical and legal issues relative to both their own professional practice and that of the larger industry in which they work. They are also responsible for guaranteeing that their own staffs, as well as others such as vendors, all conform to the legal and ethical standards of the profession. As such, training managers must: adhere to copyright and intellectual property law, particularly in relation to the use of Internet materials; refrain from making false claims about interventions, such as overstating the impact or return on investment; and maintain confidentiality with customer data, such as that generating from needs assessments or evaluations. They must also scrupulously avoid conflict of interest (such as giving preference to a training vendor who is family member or friend) and protect the organization by maintaining confidentiality of proprietary information, particularly with respect to leaking inside information.

Training managers have an obligation to make sure that all members of the organization are fully conversant with and trained in the legal and ethical issues related to human resources. Such issues are generally not popular training topics. Nonetheless, training managers must insure that all staff, particularly managers, are fully conversant with relevant professional and business ethics, that they remain current with regulatory changes affecting their product and services, and that they are trained in the employment and personnel laws of their country. Training managers in the United States have been affected in recent years by a series of court decisions on the legal liability of an organization's "failure to train." One example of this might be training in safety practices or the handling of dangerous materials in factories. Training managers have a responsibility not only to be sure that employees are fully trained

for their work roles, but also to protect the organization from "failure to train" lawsuits.

The role of the training manager with respect to legal and ethical issues becomes even more important for global organizations. Sometimes acceptable practices in one region may be considered ethically suspect in another. Legal issues relating to employment practices can also vary from country to country, even among countries in the same region, such as Europe. The challenge facing training managers in multinational organizations is three-fold. First, they must assist the organization to integrate its legal obligations and ethical values into their global business practices. At the same time they must review and update their training materials regarding ethical and legal issues. Finally, they must provide guarantees that employees in all regions are rapidly and effectively trained and current in the legal and ethical standards (Moorthy, De George, Donaldson, Ellos, Solomon, & Textor, 1998).

Training managers, therefore, have a dual responsibility. They are responsible first to themselves and second to their organizations. They have a responsibility to insure that *all* are ethically and legally grounded by establishing a firm knowledge base of information.

Competency 3: Maintain networks to advocate for and support the training and performance function. The four performance statements associated with this competency are:

a. Establish cross-functional alliances within the organization.
b. Maintain industry-specific contacts for benchmarking.
c. Establish ongoing relationships with suppliers and customers.
d. Represent and promote your organization within training and other professional communities.

In the past, training managers often have worked in isolation, planning and implementing training programs with relatively little interaction across the larger organization. Today their roles are far more complex and diverse, requiring them to be strategically linked to: key decision makers in the organization; subject matter experts who can assist with course design issues; internal customers who provide insight on business priorities; and professional associations and colleagues.

Effective training managers build a network of informal alliances and partnerships throughout the organization and utilize this network in order to achieve their goals. These alliances should begin with staff functions, such as human resource development and organizational devel-

opment. Unfortunately, in too many organizations, territorial issues and a lack of trust limit the networking, sharing, and collaboration among these functional groups.

A second tier of network relationships should be built with influential individuals in the organization who can support and advocate for the training function. This network would include managers who consistently demonstrate a keen interest in and commitment to training. Effective training managers cultivate strong links with key groups at every level in the organization. Filipczak (1994) observes that training directors "who get out into the operations of a company and actively partner with line managers who have real performance problems begin to evolve into a different kind of animal. .. .When training directors start moving away from traditional human resource development toward developing performance solutions for their company, they start to become what Mager calls performance directors" (p. 33).

Networking at this level is politically motivated in many respects. Well-positioned internal advocates can provide an entrée to senior decision makers and generate support and resources for the training function. They may also act as organizational informants and in that role provide inside information and advance notice of policy decisions that may impact the training function.

External networks, often developed through involvement with professional associations, allow training managers to rapidly gather benchmarking information from other organizations or to identify innovative solutions for training problems. Training managers need to form links with colleagues in the same industry or field and utilize these contacts to their advantage. With the current trend to outsource much of the work of the training function, training managers often use their external networks to locate third party vendors and consultants who offer the range of training services and products required. Good relationship management of both suppliers and customers will insure quality service and products and continued requests for training assistance from internal customers.

Networking is a critical skill for training managers. A well-networked professional knows whom to go to for advice, insight, resources or support and can draw on that relationship for what is needed. Networks should be built throughout the organization with individuals as well as with those groups training managers naturally ally with. Training managers should also cultivate industry-related and professional networks in the external environment with vendors, consultants, universities,

professional associations and other training groups, as well as service groups such as the local Chamber of Commerce. These networks provide opportunities for training managers to represent their organizations, to promote their profession, to stay abreast with new developments in the training field as well as to support colleagues in the network when they request assistance.

Competency 4: Update and improve professional and business knowledge, skills, and attitudes. The seven performance statements related to this competency are:

a. Keep up-to-date with and apply relevant developments in training, performance, and related fields.
b. Maintain knowledge of the products, services, and operations of the organization.
c. Keep up-to-date with developments in the business of the organization.
d. Keep up-to-date with customer requirements.
e. Continuously update technology skills.
f. Maintain awareness of social, cultural, and political trends and issues and their implications for the organization.
g. Participate in professional activities.

The pressure on today's training managers to remain up-to-date is constant, since their knowledge becomes outdated more rapidly and their repertoire of skills needs to be broader than ever. Training will remain a viable discipline as long as training managers continue to update and enhance their skills (Coleman, 1992). Training managers should therefore commit themselves to continuous self-assessment and professional development. This can be achieved by networking, attending professional association meetings and conferences, attending training courses, and undertaking personal study.

Training managers also need to remain current in other fields that overlap training and development. These may include adult learning, change management, instructional design, and management and leadership development. A great deal of professional development information can be gained by visiting the web sites of professional associations serving these fields.

Historically, training managers have not established educational qualifications in the field of business. Now many find they need to improve their knowledge and skills in areas such as finance and business manage-

ment to keep pace with changes in their departments. Business courses are readily available for training managers at universities or through professional associations. Some courses, such as those that are web-based, are self-paced and study can be taken at any place and at any time.

The expectation that training managers will be current in their organization's field of endeavor and in relevant social, cultural, and political issues is a given, particularly in large, global corporations. Credibility with senior managers and internal customers is enhanced when training managers demonstrate an in-depth knowledge of the business of the organization, including new products and services, strategic directions and goals, key results areas, the state of the competition and new technologies. This up-to-date knowledge also enables training managers to be proactive in identifying organizational trends and emerging training needs. Many training managers also find it beneficial to attend industry-specific professional meetings and seminars at the local or national level. Forming good working relationships with subject matter experts can also provide an informal education in organizational and business issues.

The rapid proliferation of new technologies specific to the training function as well as within organizations brings an added challenge to remain current. While there may be a temptation to leave it to the specialists in the group to stay abreast of technology developments, training managers must be knowledgeable about the applications that pertain to training design and delivery. They also need to be able to converse with technical experts and management about new technologies being developed or introduced into the organization.

Participation in professional associations is valuable to all training managers, whether novice or experienced. (A list of professional associations around the world that are relevant to training managers is given in Appendix F.) Professional meetings and conferences provide a forum for networking, meeting training vendors, and learning about new trends or best practices. They allow for experienced training managers to present their work and highlight their training organizations. Journals also keep training managers up-to-date and provide practitioners with an avenue to publish their work and disseminate their lessons learned to the profession at large. Finally, training managers can use their professional associations to develop personal networks, which in turn may lead to the development of friendships and opportunities to expand professional knowledge and skill. For many practitioners, keeping their networks up-to-date is the best way to stay current in the field.

Performance Analysis and Planning

The heart of the job for many training managers is the *performance analysis and planning* domain. There are three areas of competence included here: strategic planning, performance analysis, and organizational change. Although these competencies often represent the most challenging aspects of the job, they are the areas where the training manager can have the greatest impact on the organization as a whole. They are also the most rewarding for many practitioners.

Competency 5: Develop and monitor a strategic plan. This competency is supported by the following four performance statements:

a. Align the training function with the organization's vision and mission.
b. Use advisory groups to review plans and assist with their implementation.
c. Establish metrics to monitor the training function's performance against its strategic plan.
d. Review the strategic plan periodically and adjust training goals as required.

The role of the training function is to translate organizational needs into solutions that will positively impact performance. In order to achieve this goal, the training manager must have a strategic plan. However, there is relatively little in the training literature on strategic planning, the importance of it, and how to develop a plan. This may reflect the past tendency of training departments to be driven by internal requests for training rather than to act on the basis of a strategic plan designed to support the organization's goals and objectives.

Over the past decade many organizations have required their training departments to function as profit centers rather than as cost centers. In tandem with this shift, many training managers have redefined the training function in performance improvement terms, with less emphasis on developing and maintaining a suite of courses in favor of providing solutions to performance needs. In order to make a more direct contribution to the organization and be regarded as a full management partner, training managers have become more diligent about strategic planning.

A strategic plan is a clear statement of how training will contribute to the success of the organization. It "defines the training needed to

achieve the goals of the business and lays out a comprehensive roadmap for meeting those needs" (Svenson & Rinderer, 1990, p. 22). It provides information about which actions will be taken over what period of time, who will be affected, and the cost benefits to the organization.

The strategic plan, rather than intuition, past practice, or knee-jerk reactions should determine how the training function operates. The plan establishes a rational basis for determining allocation of resources on a day-by-day basis and provides insight on how the training products, interventions and services will contribute to the achievement of the organizational goals. Finally, the strategic plan addresses the longer-term development of the training function and decisions about staffing, as well as projects budget requirements for the near future.

Svenson and Rinderer (1990) provide 11 questions to guide training managers as they work through the strategic planning process. The questions focus on: the identification of external challenges facing the organization; the skills and knowledge needed to achieve organizational goals; the specific role of training and development in this process; the strengths and weaknesses of the existing training system; the establishment of training goals and strategies to achieve them; the resources required and the benefits expected from investment in these goals; the infrastructure system needs; and the implementation issues.

The strategic plan of the training and performance function must be clearly aligned with and responsive to the organization's mission, goals, and strategy. This requires the training manager be very clear about the future direction of the organization. *Training and Development in Britain 2000* suggests that training managers use five key questions to assess the extent to which their training plans and activities are determined by strategic considerations (Institute of Personnel and Development, 2000): How aware are you of strategic business issues? How important are strategic issues in determining training activities in your department? Is your analysis of training needs linked to business objectives? How important are quality issues in driving training provision? What proportion of your time is devoted to strategic activities?

Once an initial draft of the strategic plan has been written, the training manager should involve key stakeholders in finalizing it. This is particularly important when seeking to establish a new direction for the training function. Management will not support and fund a strategic plan perceived as misaligned with organizational goals.

The training manager responsible for drafting the strategic training plan in a decentralized organization should consult with regional train-

ing managers whose perspective may differ from the corporate perspective. Advisory groups representing key organizational stakeholders should be invited to review the draft and provide feedback. Typical stakeholder groups include the supervisor of the training manager, managers in organization development or human resources who will be impacted by the training strategy, and senior managers in the organization. These stakeholders should also be involved, at least indirectly, in the implementation of the training strategy, particularly when there is a major change in focus or direction.

The training manager may be unable to implement the strategic plan if there is resistance to any part of it by either cross-functional stakeholders or senior management. Following final approval of the plan, the training manager must spend time ensuring that the staff fully understands the plan's goals and features, priorities, budget constraints, and implementation time line.

A well-written strategic plan contains measurable goals and objectives. These may be stated in the form of the numbers of people to be trained in a specific skill set by a specified date, for example. Many strategic goals are often not easy to quantify, and it can be difficult to establish metrics against which to assess performance. Nevertheless, the training manager must seek to identify the metrics to be used and how and when the data will be reported. Typical metrics relate to achievement of the goals and an analysis of the cost of the effort. Financial tracking and accountability systems need to be in place to monitor the cost of achieving strategic goals. Monitoring should also involve identifying those goals that, in hindsight, the strategic plan should have included and determining the cost to the organization of these "misses."

Training managers who seek to do the right things, rather than merely do things right, use strategic plans to focus on performing tasks that are right for the organization. The plan focuses the team vision and resources primarily on performance issues that have strategic significance for the organization and less on maintaining curriculum and processes.

In many organizations training managers write strategic plans that project activities as far as three to five years, but the rate of change in organizations and national economies is making this increasingly difficult. The plan must be substantive and long-term, yet flexible enough to adapt to changes as needed. It is a challenge in many organizations to develop strategic plans with 12-month goals, and these may have to be reviewed and goals readjusted at least once during that period.

Competency 6: Use performance analysis to improve the organiza-

tion. The six performance statements that provide the supporting detail for this competency are:

a. Act as an internal consultant to identify performance problems and opportunities.
b. Use a systems perspective to analyze performance problems.
c. Determine the consequences of not taking action to solve performance problems.
d. Recommend cost-effective performance solutions.
e. Advocate and use non-instructional solutions when appropriate.
f. Insure the use of analysis to determine knowledge and skill requirements.

Ideally, training managers should focus more on performance problems than they do on training per se. Thus their primary goal should not be related to employee learning or even employee performance, but rather to improving the performance of the organization at large (Robinson & Robinson, 1998). Rossett (1999) puts it another way when she says that "the purpose of performance analysis is to help the organization accomplish its goals by incorporating data from varied sources and making effective decisions or recommendations about what should happen next" (p. 31).

Training managers with a performance orientation provide leadership in a process in which the training department serves as an internal consultant to the rest of the organization. It analyzes performances in the organization, as well as the performance of the organization.

Such an analysis, however, relies to a great extent upon the cross-functional partnerships and networks that the training manager has established throughout the organization. A performance analysis often requires the expertise of persons in other departments. For example, training personnel frequently partner with organization development colleagues. These alternative points of view can often prevent a training manager from making recommendations that do not address the primary cause of a problem, a cause that was clear to others because of their unique vantage points. Too often an instructional solution is recommended when the problem lies elsewhere. Effective working relationships with other departments need to be established and nurtured to readily facilitate such collaboration.

Training managers also draw on their relationships with senior managers to facilitate performance analyses. These are the people who can

alert training managers to emerging problems or projects within the organization so that performance issues can be anticipated and analysis started early. The most effective training managers are not isolated in their own departments; rather they stay abreast of developments in the organization through their networks. This enables them to be proactive, rather than reactive, in their role. Training managers can also build upon these relationships with senior managers to sell their solution recommendations within the organization.

What is the focus, however, of a performance analysis? Langdon (2000) identifies four dimensions of performance. He sees performance as pertaining not only to *behavior,* but also to the *standards* associated with such behavior. Thus performance analysis not only specifies behaviors, but the standards which one is expected to meet. He continues, however, by highlighting the *support* that must be provided to facilitate behaviors being demonstrated to the desired standards. Performance analyses then must attend to the support that is required in each setting. Finally, performance is impacted by *human relations.* Employee performance is often shaped as much (or more) by the attitudes and personalities of co-workers and managers as by basic competence. Each of these performance elements is within the scope of the analysis completed by the training function.

Performance analysis in today's organizational environment will not be successful without using a systems orientation to guide the process. Moreover, the boundaries of the system need to be viewed broadly since problems (i.e. gaps that exist between the desired and actual behavior) can be attributed to a wide range of environmental factors. Thus, a performance analysis typically extends beyond the performance of only the employee, to a unit, the organization, or at times even to the larger business climate. A particular need is typically influenced by diverse parts of the system and even by the general environment in which the organization exists, the one that imposes operating constraints, provides support, and receives the organization's products.

Robinson and Robinson (1996) summarize these system effects by emphasizing the relationship of performance to both external and internal causes, some of which are under the control of the organization and analysis team and others which are not. The challenge facing the training manager is to astutely determine the array of possible elements and causes that pertain to a particular problem. Many of these factors have little to do with employee skill and knowledge deficiencies. Instead, they relate to organizational culture, incentives and rewards, behavior

modeling, and resource availability. The training manager should be able to provide the larger organizational perspective so that the source of a performance problem can be accurately identified.

Problem identification is the first step in performance analysis. The training manager must also creatively devise solutions to these problems. If the analysis has been sufficiently broad, then solutions are more likely to be effective. In other words, the solutions should address the actual cause of the problem rather than the symptoms of the problem. The strength of the entire analysis exercise ultimately lies in the success of the solution.

Rossett's position (1999) is that the most effective solutions for an organization are systemic in nature. They focus upon: (1) the relationships between the entities in an organization; (2) the influence one element has over another; (3) the root causes; (4) distinctions between means and ends; and (5) multiple solutions (or solution systems) predicated upon causes, barriers and drivers of the organization.

Instructional solutions may not be the primary remedy; they may not even be appropriate. As such, the training manager and the training department are often in the position of advocating a range of solutions that do not involve instruction. Moreover, as Rossett notes, the solutions may need to be multi-faceted and complex so that they can fully address the underlying complexities of the problem. When only instructional solutions are generated, too often it is because the less obvious explanations of the situation have not been identified. For example, if sales are down, a training manager may be asked to develop a course to improve sales skills. The real cause, however, may be more complex. It may be that the sales managers lack confidence in the products they are selling, as well as the fact that they have not been fully briefed on the range and nature of the products.

The cost of not implementing the appropriate solution must also be presented when management looks for a simple training solution to a performance problem requiring a range of interventions. These costs may be more than financial. Failure to implement the optimal solutions can also have political, social, and motivational consequences for the organization.

In all cases, the solutions recommended must be cost-effective. While this may be obvious in today's economy, it highlights the need for creativity in forming solutions. Training managers are responsible for making sure that the solutions recommended are feasible, workable, and as inexpensive as possible.

Competency 7: Plan and promote organizational change. Five performance statements that support this competency are:

a. Define expectations and establish criteria for success.
b. Determine the potential political, economic, social, cultural, and emotional impact of performance solutions.
c. Inform stakeholders of the benefits, risks, conditions for success, time lines, and costs of proposed solutions.
d. Solicit confirmation and support for proposed changes.
e. Promote lifelong learning as a continuous improvement process for the organization.

Managing change is not a new activity for training managers. One 1989 IBSTPI competency was "Adapt strategies and solutions given change." Introducing new evaluation processes, updating instructional technology, or replacing an existing suite of popular management courses are typical of changes that training managers are required to manage. What *have* changed in the past decade are the volume, complexity, and speed of change and the belief that the ability to manage change is now a business imperative (Conner, 1992). At a forum of training managers in 1994, participants stated that dealing with change was the most challenging aspect of their role (Filipczak, 1994).

Change is a daily reality for all organizations, whatever their geographical location, size, or function. Every aspect of organizational life is experiencing change at a greater rate than ever and the training function is no exception. Much of this change in large organizations is driven by the need to be more competitive, as well as more effective in delivering services and products while simultaneously reducing costs and cycle time. The culture of continuous improvement has moved from the manufacturing sector to every sector within the organization, including the training and performance function. For the training manager, this translates into a requirement to provide training services faster, cheaper, and better.

Training managers today are faced with the need to manage change not only within their own function, but also within the larger organization which must also constantly adapt to change. Examples of major changes currently being made in training functions include: transitioning from instructor-led to e-learning; using instructional designers rather than content experts to design and develop training; developing competency-based curricula; focusing upon return-on-investment and

business impact evaluations, rather than post course reaction evaluations; repositioning the training department as a provider of performance improvement solutions, rather than training products; and promoting the use of emerging technologies.

The training function is often required to partner in major change efforts that impact the entire organization or significant sections of it. In these cases, the training manager teams with organization development and human resource development practitioners in the development and delivery of performance solutions and change management interventions. An example of this cross-functional approach would be the introduction of a new performance management system. This would require the training function to develop and deliver training adjusted to various levels of personnel throughout the organization. The training is often supported by job aids and virtual meetings.

The successful introduction of change, whether major or relatively small in scope, begins with a change plan. Training managers often disregard this step in introducing changes that they consider routine or insignificant. As a result, they are surprised when they encounter resistance or when a senior manager raises questions about the reason for the change. The focus of the change plan may be reactive (supported by data from problem analysis) or proactive and strategic (in response to new organizational goals or anticipated environmental changes, for example).

In building the case for change, the training manager needs to clarify exactly what will change—what will disappear and what will be new—as well as the anticipated impact of the change process on the organization. The planning phase should also address the estimated cost, list the criteria for success, identify potential barriers, and itemize the proposed benefits. Expected outcomes should be defined in measurable terms. For example, a change plan for the introduction of a new performance appraisal system might state: "A minimum of 50,000 managers will be trained in the new performance management system and tested in practice appraisal sessions by year-end. The electronic support tools will be piloted by 30 October and loaded on all managers' computers by 15 December."

During the planning phase the training manager also identifies what role she or he will play as well as who else will be involved in the change process. There are two critical roles in any change initiative. The sponsor or champion promotes and legitimizes the change. The change agent implements the change process, facilitating and managing it (Conner, 1992). When training managers introduce a change that will have a ma-

jor impact on the organization, either in terms of the nature of the change or the numbers of people affected, they need a sponsor or champion at the executive level who has a high degree of credibility with those who will be affected by the change. The training manager also needs a team of change agents who can speak for the target population and present their views of the proposed change.

Change initiatives impact the organization or the particular segment affected. The impact can be political, economic, social, cultural, or emotional in nature. For example, when a training department reinvents itself and shifts its focus from course development to performance improvement consulting, there is often reluctance on the part of some training staff to learning a new set of skills and refocusing their roles (i.e., the social and emotional impact). The department may have to bring in new staff with specific competencies and experience in performance improvement consulting (i.e., the economic and social impact). The training manager may require executive level support to overcome resistance from the organization development and human resource development managers who feel the training function is encroaching on their territory (i.e., the political impact).

All changes impact the organization and its members in some way. Training managers need to reflect upon the implications and unintended consequences of the proposed change. They need to be proactive in limiting any undesirable consequences of the change. They should expect resistance, anticipate its source and nature, and develop strategies to minimize it. It is important to openly discuss the reasons for the change, how it will be introduced, and its benefits for the individuals affected.

The training manager can use a variety of techniques to build a groundswell of support for the change. These can include e-mail, face-to-face meetings, conference calls, virtual meetings or other forms of large gatherings, focus groups, posters, brochures, web-based video, and in-house publications.

Organizational change is more likely to proceed smoothly when there is a strong base of support. The training manager must take steps to build this support well in advance of the change implementation phase. The first step is to identify the stakeholders or those with a vested interest in the outcomes. Training managers can identify potential stakeholders by working with already established networks and advisory groups, but the stakeholder groups may need to be broader than initially anticipated. For example, consider a training manager's decision to in-

troduce a computerized evaluation management system. The stakeholder group could include representatives from the information technology team to oversee technical issues, the training administrators who will have responsibility for entering data and generating reports, the managers who receive the reports and want input on format and content, the finance department, the evaluation team, and the quality managers who require evaluation data for quality audits.

Having identified the stakeholders, the training manager's next step is to communicate the "change vision" and get their buy-in, brief them on the change planning process to this point, and incorporate their input. Their expertise and experience may lead to modification of time lines, budget and rollout plans. Members of the stakeholder group can provide insight on political, social and cultural impacts in particular, and act as change agents and advocates throughout the organization. They will support the training manager in marketing the change and countering resistance. They can also provide resources and practical support in the implementation phase.

As well as the stakeholder groups, there are other key people whose support is invaluable. Major change must be sold to senior management first, often in order to get budgetary support. They have the power to sanction the change and, if necessary, mandate that it will be put into practice. The training manager must articulate a clear and compelling vision for change, the strategic advantage it will bring to the organization, and the benefits to the individuals affected. Change is more likely to be embraced when there is an obvious answer to the question "What's in it for me?"

Employees must take responsibility for change at the individual level by making a commitment to lifelong learning. This is a continuous improvement process that changes and upgrades their skill and knowledge base. Skills and knowledge are becoming obsolescent in a matter of months in some professions. Faced with limited budgets and the need to have employees trained more rapidly than ever, many organizations are placing the onus for continuous development on the employees who are expected to increase their value to the organization by continually upgrading and expanding their skills, often in their own time outside of work hours (Rossett & Sheldon, 2001).

The role of the training manager in planning and promoting organizational change has assumed greater importance in the 14 years since the first set of competencies were published.

Design and Development

The third competency domain is *design and development.* There are three skill areas within this domain: application of instructional design principles, use of technology, and evaluation. Three competencies and 16 performance statements cover the management of design and development. Many training managers may find that they lack practical experience or qualifications in the competencies in this domain. They must however be able to knowledgeably manage those who do instructional design, use technology to enhance the training function, and evaluate interventions. The competent training manager is expected to produce high quality products and services that will contribute to the achievement of organizational goals.

Competency 8: Insure the application of instructional design principles. The four performance statements related to this competency are:

a. Adapt design processes to meet the needs of the organization.
b. Insure that design solutions reflect the characteristics of the organization.
c. Insure that design solutions reflect the diversity of learner characteristics in the organization.
d. Promote the effective use of instructional design processes.

It is not assumed here that training managers always perform the design and development tasks themselves,[1] rather it is assumed that they are responsible for the effective application of instructional design principles. At its most basic level, this involves appointing designers to the project and directing and reviewing their work. This applies to all designers, whether they are in-house staff or external vendors. Training managers must recognize the importance of having qualified and experienced designers, especially given the tendency in some organizations to recruit multimedia experts with no design background to develop e-learning.

There are many models and design processes to choose from, all of which include the essential elements of analysis, design, development,

1. The design and development competencies are covered in a previous IBSTPI publication, *Instructional Design Competencies: The Standards* (2000) by Richey, Fields & Foxon.

and evaluation. Training managers are often pressured to shorten the design/development cycle, typically by omitting or limiting the analysis phase. Nonetheless, they must maintain departments that are capable of undertaking needs assessments, problem analyses, and root cause analyses as required by each project. These capabilities demand not only a full complement of skills, but also budgets robust enough to support their use.

In the past, many large organizations created their own instructional design models supported by elaborate processes, stored in thick binders and requiring designers to document each phase of the process. Design and development processes have become leaner and more flexible in recent years as managers and designers alike recognize that models must adapt to accommodate the specific needs of each project and the organizational constraints under which they are conducted (Tessmer & Wedman, 1995). The transition to e-learning, coupled with pressures to develop courseware more rapidly, has also resulted in process adaptations. Rapid prototyping methodologies are being perfected in response to this phenomenon, but this drives development processes even further away from the rigid methodologies of the past and toward more flexible and adaptable approaches (Jones & Richey, 2000; Spannaus, 2001). Therefore, the "one size fits all" design and development processes are being abandoned to a great extent.

When training managers are not directly involved in the design and development process, they are, nevertheless, responsible for using design solutions that are appropriate for the organization. This involves considering issues that address:

1. cost, such as determining whether the organization can afford to have a consultant deliver a workshop in three different countries;
2. available technology and facilities, such as considering whether all sites have the capability to deliver synchronous instruction;
3. cross cultural concerns, such as considering whether job aids lose some of their meaning when translated to other languages; and
4. audience, such as considering whether executives are willing to do role plays.

Such issues need to be resolved during the planning stages, while there is still time to modify the proposed solutions in a cost effective and timely manner. It is therefore important that training managers be

actively involved throughout the design and development process, even though they are not actually doing the design themselves.

Each organization has its own culture built upon its unique values, history, and rituals. Training and performance improvement interventions that do not conform to the organizational culture generally fail. For example, learners are likely to resist training programs that are based on instructor lectures with only occasional discussions and group work in organizations that value and promote open discussion, the sharing of conflicting ideas, and the right of employees to challenge a superior. The same organization would resist change interventions that were presented as mandates from top management, with no room for flexibility in how the change could be implemented. One important role of the training manager, therefore, is to make sure that proposed solutions are a good fit with the organizational culture.

Training managers and designers both have a responsibility to see that their training and performance solutions reflect the diversity of the learners. Designers should analyze their target populations, but there is often a temptation to save time by using only one's preconceived assumptions about the target population. However, it is the training manager's task to see that the actual characteristics of each particular group of learners are accommodated. Some examples of these characteristics include cultural orientation, fluency in the language used in the training program, level of skill with technology, level of education, gender, race, age, position in the organization, and disabilities that may affect participation.

Despite flexible design and development methodologies and the use of prototypes or other tools to accelerate cycle time, design often takes longer than anticipated. Training managers must monitor the development of the solution and guard against subtle expansion of the scope of the project. *Scope creep*, as it is known, is a common problem. Sometimes it is the customer who initiates it by requesting additional components. At other times, over-enthusiastic developers add new features to the original design. The training manager must manage the process to make sure that the solution is not only cost effective but that it also addresses the performance problem and is delivered in a timely manner.

While it is true that there is no single best way to develop training and performance solutions, experts agree that as a set of heuristics, the instructional systems design process is still the most efficient and effective (Zemke & Rossett, 2002). If applied correctly, it is results-focused and delivers solutions to a consistently high standard. The training man-

ager must also show that using instructional design processes to develop training and performance solutions makes good business sense and is cost efficient.

Competency 9: Use technology to enhance the training function. Six performance statements that support the technology competency are:

a. Analyze existing and emerging technologies and their uses in the organization.
b. Use technology to support the administration of the training function.
c. Use technology to design, deliver, and administer training interventions.
d. Promote effective e-learning solutions.
e. Select technology that is compatible with the organization and the training role.
f. Model the appropriate use of technology within the organization.

Although technology is commonly equated with electronic technology, it has a broader meaning in the training and performance field, encompassing instructional design as well as development and delivery systems. However, the focus of this competency *is* on electronic technology (often referred to as information and communications technology).

New technologies are often adopted by the training function because they allow staff to do their work more efficiently. A shift occurs when the training manager recognizes the potential for innovative uses provided by the technology. The World Wide Web is a good example. Training managers saw the potential for cost reduction by replacing expensive paper-based course catalogues with web-based catalogues that could be updated regularly at no cost. Later they realized the web's potential to totally automate course and room scheduling, registration, instructor selection, participant billing, attendance tracking, and evaluation.

Technology has significantly influenced the design and delivery of training and performance solutions in the 14 years since the first IBSTPI standards were published. Training managers are now investing in design and delivery technologies, such as learning content management systems that support reusable learning objects, knowledge management systems, and wireless delivery systems.

Some of today's emerging technologies will be established technologies within a few years. In less than a decade, for example, training delivery has expanded from computer-based learning to e-learning and

now to m-learning (mobile learning) with the use of pagers, personal digital assistants and other wireless technologies. The challenge for training managers is to stay abreast of new technologies and to be sufficiently knowledgeable about them to make informed investments in equipment and software without needing to be information technology experts. Training managers constantly deal with technology issues in their day-to-day work. For example, it is not unusual for a training manager to deal with issues such as: Is an emerging technology likely to live up to its promise or is it one more fad? Should the department pay for the customization of a vendor's database or should it be built in-house? Will higher management agree to upgrade computer equipment in the transition to e-learning?

Yet, with all of these complexities, there is a shortage of objective and independent sources of technology advice, and reliable software rating services are scarce (Dobbs, 2002). Even when information technology specialists provide in-depth analyses and suggestions, training managers must be able to evaluate technologies themselves and determine how they can be used in the training function. Training managers often make the final technology decisions, and these decisions require more than a cursory knowledge of training and performance technologies. Thus, it is critical that the training manager work closely with the organization's information technology department. Training managers need to build strong relationships with information technology personnel, since failure to partner with them may result in higher costs, long development cycles, and lack of technical support.

The administration of the training and performance function is becoming increasingly computerized. Technology impacts almost every activity of the function in large organizations, from managing budgets to evaluation reports for quality audits. This has forced many training departments to build or purchase learning management systems (LMS). An effective LMS must be capable of supporting the organization's objectives, match technology already in place, and be integrated into existing human resource systems.

The rapid and continuous expansion of technology-based training has led some training managers to establish a percentage target for web-based training. Before such targets are set, training managers must make a case for their recommendations. In this process, they should consider factors such as the following: Is this the optimal learning solution, and is there a high level of organizational and technical readiness (Colbrunn & Van Tiem, 2002)? Will management make the necessary investment

to establish technology-based learning in the organization? Are employees open to e-learning, or will there be resistance? Is there a commitment to managing the changes that e-learning will require of the organization?

Both Beer (2000) and Rosenberg (2001) provide checklists and decision processes in order to assist training managers in determining whether e-learning is appropriate for their situations. There are also web-based tools that guide the training manager through a series of questions to identify the most suitable and cost-effective learning solution for a performance need.

The decision to use training technologies in an organization requires that both technical and cultural facets be considered. Technically, it is essential that hardware and software be fully compatible with that used by the organization. Incompatible technology is unlikely to be supported by the information technology group. Culturally, it is also essential that the proposed technology is compatible with the traditions and values of the organization. For example, employees in hi-tech companies are more likely to embrace m-learning than professions with less exposure to emerging technologies. Some groups of learners may prefer classroom instruction because of the camaraderie and opportunity to network.

Effective training managers not only advocate the use of technology for learning and the management of the training function, but they should also model the appropriate use of technology. They are able to generate reports from the learning management system, conduct virtual meetings, engage in e-learning, and use a range of software applications including project management tools. While training managers may not be technology experts, they should be sufficiently knowledgeable so that they can make fully informed decisions about technology use in the organization. In this way, they can not only enhance the training function, but can enhance the organization as a whole.

Competency 10: Evaluate training and performance interventions. This competency has six related performance statements, as follows:

a. Develop comprehensive evaluation policies and strategies for the training function.
b. Document direct and indirect costs of training and performance solutions.
c. Document the impact of training and performance solutions.

d. Use evaluation data to enhance the quality of training and performance solutions.
e. Disseminate evaluation results to all project stakeholders.
f. Evaluate and revise project processes and procedures.

Over the past decade senior management has grown less willing to assume that all training and performance interventions benefit their organization. One outcome of this has been the interest in evaluation on the part of training managers who are increasingly pressured to demonstrate the value gained from the investment of money and resources in training (van Adelsberg & Trolley, 1999). Research has shown that evaluation is one of the most challenging aspects for training managers, since many often have little or no training in evaluation (Dionne, 1996). Faced with the requirement to demonstrate effectiveness and value to internal customers and management, they may decide to develop in-house capability or may choose to hire an evaluation consultant.

A training manager is not usually expected to perform evaluation tasks in larger organizations, but rather to direct those who do. Nonetheless, this requires a foundational knowledge of evaluation practice. This knowledge should encompass the use of formative, summative and confirmative evaluation, as well as standard evaluation models, such as Kirkpatrick's four levels (1998) and Stufflebeam's CIPP model for program evaluation (1983).

Evaluation is the process of judging the value and worth of an intervention or process, and evaluation data is used to influence decision makers, provide feedback to various stakeholders, and ultimately to improve the organization. The most commonly used approach to evaluation in a training and performance setting is that of Kirkpatrick (1998), which advocates evaluating at the levels of reactions, learning, application and impact. Unfortunately many training managers do not evaluate beyond the first level. This may be because of lack of expertise, but it may also reflect the lack of budget, staff and time to support more comprehensive evaluation studies. In addition, many in the training and performance field are not conversant with alternative approaches to evaluation that have been published in the past few years (see for example, Holton, 1996; Swanson & Holton, 1999; Brinkerhoff & Apking, 2001).

The training manager is responsible for establishing evaluation policies and strategies to capture the contribution of training and performance interventions to the organization. Evaluation policies should specify the interventions to be evaluated, the types of evaluation to be

carried out for given interventions, how data will be used, how confidentiality will be assured, who will receive evaluation reports, and the time frame to complete an evaluation and distribute reports. Policies may also give guidance on when to engage internal or external evaluators who have not been involved in the design and development phases of the intervention in order to reduce possible bias.

Evaluation strategies are the vehicle for ensuring the successful implementation of evaluation policies. For example, training managers must know how to obtain evaluation funding and how to insure that management acts on their recommendations. Russ-Eft and Preskill (2001) suggest several strategies to strengthen the role of evaluation in an organization. In particular, they highlight the need to gain commitment for evaluation from key stakeholders, to use collaboration to build support, and to develop a deep understanding of the organizational context.

Assessing cost is an essential aspect of evaluating a training and performance intervention, but it is also challenging because many training managers lack the knowledge of finance needed to accurately and reliably determine costs. Phillips (1997) provides a number of reasons why the documentation of cost data is an important task for training managers. These include predicting future program costs, calculating benefits versus costs for a specific intervention, evaluating alternatives, and budgeting for the next year. Direct costs include such items as the cost of facilities and resources, hiring of consultants, and materials. Indirect costs are often more difficult to determine than direct costs. However, in some situations they should be considered if the evaluation report is to present a complete picture. For example, if 25 machinists attend a two-hour safety seminar, the 50 hours of lost productivity would be significant and should be factored into the cost of the training.

Phillips (1998) adds a fifth level to Kirkpatrick's four levels: return on investment (ROI) evaluation. He concedes, however, that relatively few training managers conduct ROI evaluation because of its inherent difficulties. ROI is generally expressed as a percentage and compares the monetary value of the intervention with the costs involved. In calculating return on investment, indirect costs should be taken into account wherever possible. Such costs might include staff hours to design, develop and pilot the intervention, to process and analyze evaluation data after a training course, and the lost opportunity time of learners absent from work. Brinkerhoff and Apking (2001) propose *Success Case Evaluation* as a viable alternative to ROI evaluation. This involves determin-

ing the impact of the training by collecting anecdotal reports of training applications that can then be quantified. Schrock (1999) suggests that well-crafted Level 2 assessments could eliminate much of the need for ROI evaluation altogether.

At the completion of the evaluation, the training manager must direct the preparation of a report that documents the impact of the intervention on the individual as well as on the organization. In documenting evaluation findings, a training manager may be faced with political and/or ethical considerations. When a senior manager's pet program is rated poorly, for example, a training manager may be tempted to withhold the report from circulation or to adjust the data to minimize the negative impact. Russ-Eft and Preskill (2001) identify several political and ethical dilemmas training managers may face when evaluating training and performance interventions. They suggest a number of strategies to minimize political issues. These can be used before and during the implementation phase of the evaluation, as well as during the reporting phase. Key strategies include involving stakeholders through a collaborative approach, demonstrating professionalism in every phase of the evaluation, and communicating clearly and in a variety of formats to stakeholders.

An evaluation report should do more than merely list the responses or comments to each question. It should provide an analysis of the data, grouping of open-ended comments by topic, and an executive summary detailing major findings and recommendations. The report should avoid training jargon or technical terms and make use of graphs, tables and charts to convey findings. The style, length and visual display of the report should be customized for the intended audience. For example, most executives will not read a lengthy and detailed evaluation report, but will review 10 to 12 well-designed PowerPoint slides that crisply summarize the key points.

Evaluation closes the loop between the needs analysis information, which identified the gap to be addressed, and the outcome. It answers the question, "Did we address the problem successfully? If not, then why not?" Evaluation also provides insights on the impact of the intervention, systemic factors that hinder or facilitate transfer of skill and knowledge to the work place, and changes to make the intervention more effective.

Changes to training and performance solutions are often made on the basis of a post-course survey or group debriefing immediately after the training course or performance intervention. However, training man-

agers should draw on a wider range of evaluation data. For example, feedback can be solicited from instructors and administrative staff. Anything that has a bearing on the success of the program should be considered for inclusion in the evaluation report. This includes data about content issues, logistics and administration, participant readiness, time allocation, senior management support (or lack thereof), budget constraints, and level of performance on prework. In some cases, it may be relevant to include observations about participant behaviors that impacted the effectiveness of the intervention. For example, a training manager may report that the majority of participants took business calls and were absent more than once from a key session in the program. These data, when incorporated with the more commonly collected evaluation data, provide an in-depth assessment of the intervention and the changes needed to enhance its quality.

The evaluation report should be distributed to all those associated in some way with the intervention. These may include participants, participants' managers, instructors, course designers, senior training management, and the program sponsor. For non-training interventions, the report should also be distributed to internal or external consultants who have contributed to the intervention.

The delivery of the report may vary depending on the recipients. For example, e-mailing the report to participants is generally an accepted practice. In presenting the findings and recommendations to senior management, the training manager might prefer a group setting. A face-to-face discussion of relevant issues with the course designer, instructor, or consultant is often preferable to using e-mail.

Many training managers use the evaluation report as a marketing tool. They present high-level findings and recommendations in person to key stakeholders, especially those whose support is critical to the continuance of the intervention. They also distribute the executive summary to a range of key stakeholders when seeking to gain wide acceptance for an intervention or to draw attention to the successes of the training function.

The evaluation policies, strategies and procedures should themselves be evaluated in a process referred to as meta-evaluation. The training manager may hire an evaluation consultant or establish a cross-functional team of stakeholders in the organization to evaluate the evaluation process. This evaluation review is a useful tool for gathering organizational learning about the evaluation policies, strategies, processes and techniques. There are a number of questions that a meta-evaluation may seek to answer. For example:

1. Is our approach to evaluation cost effective?
2. Does it provide the data that stakeholders want?
3. Is it timely?
4. Are tracking reports easily generated and in a user-friendly format?
5. Are we effective in gaining stakeholder support?
6. How can we improve our data collection instruments?
7. Where do we need to improve our evaluation expertise?
8. How are evaluation data being used?

Meta-evaluation, although rarely undertaken, provides the training manager with an opportunity to judge the value and worth of the evaluation processes and system and to use the feedback to improve the practice of evaluation in the organization.

Administration

The fourth and final competency domain is *administration.* The competencies address four skill areas: leadership, management, business, and knowledge management.

In many respects, the competencies in this domain undergird the training manager's role. The majority of a training manager's work can be categorized as leading and managing, while running the training function as a business entity within the organization. The requirement to be active in knowledge management is a new aspect of the training manager's role but of growing importance.

Competency 11: Apply leadership skills to the training function. The nine performance statements supporting this competency are:

a. Position the training function as a strategic partner in achieving business goals.
b. Develop organizational support for training strategies and solutions.
c. Market the training function.
d. Insure that training services and products reflect organizational philosophy, culture, and brand identity.
e. Recruit and select training staff.

f. Develop staff to enhance their professional skills and the training function.
g. Create and build teams to meet project goals.
h. Cultivate a sense of ownership within project teams.
i. Identify and minimize the effects of internal barriers on achieving project goals.

The performance statements supporting the leadership competency fall into three subcategories: strategic positioning of the training function, staffing, and removing obstacles. In the original set of training manager competencies, the focus was on the importance of staying abreast of developments in the field in order to establish and maintain credibility. In the revised standards, however, the emphasis is on the strategic leadership role of the training manager. Leadership is one area of activity that a training manager cannot delegate to others.

The training manager with a leadership mindset is proactive, constantly positioning the training function as a key contributor to the business, using basic marketing tools to promote the training function internally within the organization, and aligning training products with the corporate brand identity. Such training managers actively promote their position that good training is good business. This may mean that they have to terminate popular, but ineffective training programs, redesign outdated courseware, or refuse to allocate budget for fashionable interventions that do not support organizational goals. At the same time, training managers must show how their products and services are directly or indirectly aligned to organizational goals.

Training managers now recognize the importance of marketing the training function. One common approach is to develop and e-mail electronic brochures about specific products or services to key decision makers. Training managers can indirectly market their department by attending other managers' business meetings and providing information on projects or services relevant to their departments. Once the benefit of training has been established and partnerships with line managers have been formed, it is likely that the training manager will be invited regularly to internal meetings. Training products and services can be promoted to senior management in this way.

The constant pressure on training managers to demonstrate that they add value to the organization has changed the notion of what it means to be a leader. Only a decade ago, training managers in major organizations viewed their leadership role principally in relation to their own de-

partment and team. In the twenty-first century, they must be first seen as organizational leaders and only then as leaders of their departments. As leaders, they can position the training function as a strategic partner in the organization. They can contribute to strategic planning and work with all levels of the business to identify and address performance issues.

Training managers must be capable of rapidly responding to the changing business environment. According to Maisie (1999), one of the three principal issues facing training managers is how to align the training function with organizational objectives in order to support the business. Because of a failure to do this, many training managers suffer a credibility problem and are viewed by senior management only as a support function whose main contribution is the production of courses with little relationship to the organization's business goals. Van Adelsberg and Trolley (1999) provide useful insight on this scenario with their comparison of information technology and training and development. Both are "backwater" functions that have assumed greater strategic importance in the past decade despite not being well understood by executives. Information technology shifted from promoting the potential of technology to demonstrating its value by linking it to critical business issues, streamlining processes, and providing competitive advantage. In many settings, training and development, by comparison, continues to sell only the potential of training, rather than consistently demonstrating its value to the business.

Staffing the training function became more complex in the 1990s. Prior to this, recruitment pertained primarily to trainers, designers, and administrative staff. Now training managers must recruit, select and professionally develop specialists in many diverse fields, including e-learning, performance technology, evaluation, executive education, information technology, and change management. Personnel selection demands interviewing expertise, as well as knowledge of many specialized jobs. In addition, selection involves creating a complementary set of skills in the department as a whole.

Having selected new staff, the training manager has a responsibility to orient the new employees and provide them with on-the-job coaching and support so that they can quickly become integral members of the department. It takes considerable leadership skill to meld a diverse group of specialists into a high performing team capable of swiftly responding to organizational needs. Training managers need to create teams that are strong, yet diverse. Team members need to value and respect each per-

son's unique contribution. Care should be taken to allocate high profile projects across the team rather than only to the most experienced. Assignments should be made to further develop staff skills.

Training managers must give corrective feedback at the appropriate time to individuals, as well as to teams, so that all can learn from the experience. Finally, good leaders make a point of appreciating and actively acknowledging the specific contributions of each team member. They should give the team full credit and recognition for successful project outcomes.

The third area of leadership reflected in these competencies is that of overcoming obstacles to achieve goals. These barriers may stem from cuts in budget or headcount. Other obstacles are political in nature. The importance of internal networks and partnerships in dealing with these issues has been previously addressed. Good communication skills are essential to overcoming barriers stemming from an unwillingness to collaborate or lend support for training initiatives.

Training managers propose interventions that they believe will produce positive outcomes for the organization, but they may find that they have to spend time building support and acceptance for the project or overcoming opposition. The positive and negative consequences of any intervention, as well as the consequences of not taking action, should be anticipated and openly discussed with stakeholders. Ultimately, the ability to overcome obstacles and build organizational support for training solutions is a mark of the leadership credibility of the training manager.

Competency 12: Apply management skills to the training function. The seven performance statements related to this competency are:

a. Model a customer-focused business style.
b. Manage relationships with internal and external consultants.
c. Manage outsourcing.
d. Anticipate and resolve conflicts.
e. Manage and direct training personnel.
f. Manage and direct multiple projects.
g. Deliver products and services on a timely basis.

Whereas leadership is strategic in nature, management is tactical. In the leadership role, a training manager is concerned with vision, setting goals, and strategic positioning. In the management role, the training manager is focused on the day-to-day running of the department, achiev-

ing goals, and delivering products and services. Simply put, the training manager is required to manage the people *and* manage the projects. Internally, the training manager interacts with training department personnel, other specialists whose interaction places them in the role of internal consultant, and customers within the organization. With the expansion of the training function (e.g., developing e-learning as well as classroom based instruction, partnering with organization development in change management initiatives, or working with the knowledge management group to establish communities of practice), training managers often find themselves allied with, managing, and directing large numbers of people who do not belong to their department. Consequently, training managers must be skilled process consultants.

Externally, their interaction is with consultants, suppliers and other parties to whom aspects of the training function are outsourced. It is more cost effective, in many cases, to outsource certain projects to contractors than to hire additional staff. Outsourcing should also be considered for tasks that are traditionally carried out by the training department but that are not core activities of the training and performance function. Consider, for example, the administration of a dedicated training facility. Responsibilities such as security, front desk reception, audio-visual maintenance, catering, and scheduling can all be outsourced. In some organizations even classroom delivery is outsourced, and there are no longer any instructors employed by the training department.

Despite the outsourcing trend in many organizations, it is unwise to outsource the core training activities, such as needs assessment, since external consultants typically lack the inside knowledge and contacts that the training staff possesses. If internal staff lacks requisite assessment skills, a training manager may decide to outsource part of the task to an external consultant. In partnering with an internal staff member, the consultant is able to access the organizational knowledge, and the staff member's skill is enhanced by working with a more experienced needs analyst. Finally, outsourcing should be considered for training which is not organization-specific and which is already developed in acceptable, though not customized, formats. A good example would be compliance training in human resource and legal issues as required by the governments of many countries. It is an inefficient use of budget and personnel to design and develop such training when it can be purchased from vendors and customized to one's own organization at far less cost.

The effective training manager must model a customer-focused business style in every relationship and make sure that training department

staff members understand how and why to act likewise. A study undertaken in the mid-1990s reveals a lack of skill in this area. Only 21% of more than 800 respondents rated their training departments favorably in the area of customer service (Filipczak, 1994). The more appropriate management style is characterized by a readiness to listen to the internal customers and to look at the performance problems through their eyes, rather than from a trainer's perspective. Doing so also implies a willingness to learn about the customers' job functions, their missions and goals, future requirements and perceived trends in their area of work. Training managers need to consciously manage and nurture the relationships with internal customers as they do with external customers.

The training manager's most visible management role is in the delivery of products and services to the organization. Internal customers invariably want their interventions delivered by unrealistic deadlines and at a price that cannot be accommodated. However, skilled managers have to find a way to meet those demands as closely as possible. They are required to juggle multiple projects, often with inadequate resources and headcount. Training managers also need to be alert for parallel projects focused on the same training need by different groups within the organization. Leadership training is a classic example. In most organizations there is a duplication of effort and waste of resources because of the uncoordinated efforts to address a common need.

The demand to provide technology-based interventions places considerable pressure on the training manager because development time and costs are generally greater than for classroom-based interventions. Training managers must be conversant with the specialty areas of each subordinate, know how much pressure each person can tolerate, and how to team individuals for optimal performance. They must be adept at anticipating and resolving the conflict that inevitably surfaces when cross-functional project teams work under pressure. The training manager should hold regular operational reviews and closely monitor all projects in the department without undermining the work of the project leaders. All staff should receive project management training and use the same project management software.

The failure to deliver interventions on time and within budget can undermine the reputation of a training manager very quickly, despite the fact that it is often the customer rather than the training team that causes project delays. Delays are typically caused by situations such as inaccessible subject matter experts, failure to review design documents

by an agreed upon date, and the customer's inability to provide sufficient learners for a pilot. The training manager must manage these delays with the customer and find ways to get the project back on track without compromising standards of excellence.

Competency 13: Apply business skills to the training function. Seven performance statements expand and elaborate upon this competency, as follows:

a. Manage the training function as a model of effective business practice.
b. Promote the business case for performance interventions.
c. Develop budgets.
d. Manage financial and material resources.
e. Maintain a business data collection, retrieval and reporting system.
f. Maintain and schedule training facilities and equipment.
g. Publish materials and documents in a professional, economical and timely manner.

Training managers must be grounded in business management principles, but this is an area in which training managers historically lack expertise (Filipczak, 1994). The performance statements supporting this competency identify the specific business skills demonstrated most often by an effective training manager. This competency is generic, for the most part, and applies to managers of most functional groups in an organization.

The first performance statement supporting this competency provides a guiding principle for the training manager: the training department should be run like a business, it should exemplify the organization's best business practices, and it should serve as a model for other departments. The training department should be viewed as a capital investment from which the organization expects a specific return in terms of enhancing employees' skill and knowledge and providing solutions to performance problems. Training managers should possess business skills and be aware of the inner workings of the organization, as well as how all of their business decisions, financial or non-financial, affect the organization as a whole (McLagan, 1989). Specifically, they should be knowledgeable about the organization's requirements for budgets, accounting procedures, planning cycles, project management, human resource processes, facilities processes, systems, and security. Training managers

may wish to benchmark other organizations' training departments to identify best practices of their own. Procedures should be established to measure the quality standards of the training function and its products and services, as well as to capture customer satisfaction data. Some training departments in the past have operated on the assumption that sufficient budget will be forthcoming each year irrespective of performance and output. This is no longer the case, especially in large organizations where financial accountability and return on investment are expected.

Developing, gaining approval for, monitoring, and balancing the training budget comprise the heart of the training manager's role as a business person. Training managers must constantly make do with less than optimal resources to meet the organization's training needs, and making the budget stretch can become a preoccupation. Funds should be allocated to each project with checkpoints and regular reviews to identify potential budgetary problems. The management of financial and material resources is closely linked to the budgeting process. The training manager's annual management plan should address issues such as funds, office space, internal personnel, contractors, vendors, equipment, materials, supplies, professional development, team meetings, and travel. By maintaining a business data collection, retrieval and reporting system, the training manager can project, track, and manage budget expenditures; control resources; and evaluate outcomes.

The training manager who builds the department on a solid financial and business basis is well positioned to present a strong business case for the performance interventions and training products recommended by the department. Internal customers want evidence that the proposed training will add value to their operations by contributing to the achievement of the organizational goals and by addressing significant performance issues.

Making a business case is dependent on the training manager's ability to identify organizational trends, changes, and key issues in order to show the relationship between those and the proposed intervention and to forecast the impact of the intervention in both financial and non-financial terms. Historically training managers have not appreciated the importance of this skill, perhaps because by nature they are more oriented toward people than toward financial issues (Swanson, 1992). Today, especially in large companies and government departments, training has to be presented and discussed with management in terms of its monetary payoff. Failure to present a sound business case will, most

likely, lead to a rejection of the training manager's proposal. Making a business case for training is doubly important in the current climate of downsizing those departments perceived as ancillary to the organization's primary mission.

Many training managers have responsibility for training facilities and equipment, as well as for publishing training materials and documentation[2]. The coordination of the training facility is outsourced in many organizations (including scheduling, participant notification of course dates, publishing the schedule of open training courses, purchasing and maintaining training equipment, setting up training rooms, and providing support to instructors). The training manager in this scenario has to allocate the budget, select the vendors, and monitor the vendors' performance. The training manager must also set up processes and infrastructure to track class enrollment, course completions, credits for training hours, evaluation data, and distribution of evaluation reports.

Training department publications are often the only interaction employees have with the training function. Therefore, they should be well designed, accurate, and user-friendly. They should be aligned with corporate communications policies and published with sufficient lead time to allow for others to develop training plans. These days, key documents are typically published in electronic format, whether paper-based versions are produced or not.

Competency 14: Implement knowledge management solutions. Knowledge management skills are explained with the five following performance statements.

a. Promote knowledge management within the training function and the organization.
b. Partner in the establishment of processes to gather, store, retrieve, and share information.
c. Establish processes to reuse and add value to existing knowledge.
d. Establish knowledge-sharing communities.
e. Use knowledge management solutions to integrate learning into the work environment.

2. Those training managers dealing exclusively with these tasks have been called managers of training administration and delivery. Their unique role is discussed in more depth in chapter 5.

Knowledge management is the capturing, storing, and sharing of organizational knowledge in order to enhance performance (Institute of Personnel and Development, 2000). Employees are viewed as *knowledge workers* whose value resides in their intellectual capabilities and in their ability to utilize their knowledge to the advantage of the organization. Intellectual capital has always been leveraged for business reasons, but the management of knowledge has become critical with the advent of the Internet. Intellectual capital, or knowledge, can refer to tangible items such as documents, databases, patents, and published works. However, it also encompasses the insights and creative suggestions of individual employees, as well as things the organization has learned from its experience. The success of corporations, government departments, and the military in the twenty-first century is dependant more than ever on their ability to effectively harness, manage, and exploit what they know.

Although knowledge management is not a training function per se, many training managers regard it as an important new dimension of their role. Interviews with several hundred training managers in Britain in 2000 identified the development of knowledge management strategies as one of their top eight training issues for the next two years (Institute of Personnel and Development, 2000). The challenge facing training managers is to "collect, stir, store, and refresh the knowledge" embedded in the organization (Rossett & Sheldon, 2001, p. 186), while at the same time identifying opportunities to use knowledge management to solve learning and performance problems.

Organizations that view knowledge management as a strategic initiative invest heavily in the establishment of architectures, processes, and systems to support it. Knowledge management systems are those systems that enable an organization to effectively and efficiently manage the information resources and intellectual capital that are the foundation of the organization (Spector & Edmonds, 2002). An effective knowledge management system: captures and records relevant, up-to-date, and accurate organizational knowledge and learning; orders and stores it for easy access and searching; links knowledge items in order to transform them for new uses; and allows for organizational-wide sharing of knowledge.

All employees should be able to access organizational knowledge with easy-to-use tools and without having to go through unnecessary approvals or layers of security (Tobin, 1998). Although information technology specialists will have the primary responsibility for establishing

the technology infrastructure to capture, store, and manage the knowledge, the training manager, as one who is vitally concerned with organizational learning and information, should be involved and provide input.

Knowledge management technologies are changing rapidly to integrate the latest technologies to further leverage an organization's intellectual capital and knowledge foundations. Examples include object-oriented databases and knowledge-based mark-up languages (Spector, 2002). These knowledge management technologies are finding widespread areas of application in many organizations, which means that the training manager's responsibilities include understanding which knowledge management systems are being used throughout the organization and how they can be further leveraged to support the training function.

Knowledge management adds value to the organization when employees are committed to share rather than hoard knowledge and expertise, but in many organizations the decision to promote widespread sharing of knowledge by all groups is initially threatening and therefore resisted. Collaboration and informal knowledge sharing are critical if new knowledge is to be generated or existing knowledge made more valuable. The challenge facing training managers is to foster a culture that facilitates trust and open sharing and that creates social networks for learning. They must encourage employees to share ideas and best practices, promote reflection on practice, and support partnerships among groups that may not have historically collaborated (Warner, 2001).

Training managers can play a significant role in establishing processes and strategies to identify and network pockets of information and knowledge across the organization. They can also promote informal learning and knowledge sharing opportunities where new insights and bursts of brilliance can occur. Much of this learning is related to meeting organizational goals (e.g., reducing development time for products, identifying creative uses for a new technology). Organization-wide databases, collaborative tools for project teams, communities of practice, open space technology, discussion lists, portals, search engines, and focused chat rooms enable employees to learn and transfer new knowledge in real time. Training managers can also encourage knowledge sharing using face-to-face methods such as training events, follow-up sessions, problem solving labs, brainstorming sessions, mentoring, and lunch-time discussion groups for communicating new discoveries or solving problems.

Many training managers have been engaged in these types of activities for some time, but their focus has traditionally been on imparting what

is already known. In the knowledge management context, the focus is on amplifying existing knowledge, as well as generating new knowledge and innovation for the organization. Training managers are, therefore, facing the challenge of generating new types of learning solutions that seamlessly integrate learning and work. Training (or knowledge) can be delivered to the workstation in such a way that it is indistinguishable from the actual job. In other words, the intervention and the real world of work are virtually the same and training becomes an integrated learning process rather than a separate event. The training manager's task, therefore, is to exploit the potential for synergy between knowledge management and training and to identify ways of promoting the sharing and development of knowledge that are more effective and efficient than formal training.

Conclusions

Training management, as with all types of management and leadership, involves a combination of administrative skills and content knowledge. Moreover, effective managers have a keen appreciation and knowledge of the "business of the business." These newly updated competencies describe in detail the complexities and breadth of the training manager's job. Chapter 4 examines the many ways in which these competencies can be used to facilitate the training manager profession.

4

Use of the Training Manager Competencies

The competencies are more than a description of the knowledge and skills expected of a training manager. They operationally define the concept of training manager and can serve as a basis for defining job requirements and position descriptions. The competency standards also supply a common language for discussing the training manager role in a way that transcends time, place, and culture.

Both individuals and organizations will find these competencies useful. Four groups in particular can make use of them. Training managers constitute the primary group. The standards represent a benchmark against which practicing training managers can assess their own knowledge and skill. A second group is the organizational decision makers charged with determining what type of training function should be established in an organization. They will find these standards a helpful source of guidance and direction, particularly in the recruitment process. A third group who will use these competencies is the academic community. The standards provide a basis for developing curricula for preparing training managers. Finally, professional associations and training consultants who provide professional development for training managers can base their offerings on these competencies. However, each of these groups will need to identify specific procedures attuned to the unique characteristics of their own organization when applying these competencies.

Many professional groups in the human resource domain are considering certification, even though there is no certification for training managers at this time. However, these standards can provide a basis for the future development of training manager certification.

Competency Use by Training Managers

Over the past two decades, the training function has become more closely linked to organizational strategy and performance in keeping with senior management's increased expectations for the training function. In most organizations, training must be managed as a profit center and demonstrate a measurable contribution to the organization. As a result, many training and performance managers recognize the need to upgrade their own skills and knowledge levels to cope with the challenges they now face. The IBSTPI standards are particularly relevant to these practicing training managers. They also provide a valuable career development tool for prospective training managers.

The standards represent the most up-to-date knowledge of how the profession is evolving and what the market place expects of it. Thus, the standards operationally define the training manager of the twenty-first century in terms of the skills actually used on the job. For the practicing training manager, the standards provide insight on the question, "Do I have the knowledge and skills needed to be fully effective, given my occupational context?" For the prospective training manager the standards answer, in part, the question, "Which skills must I develop to prepare me for this new role?" In other words, the standards are a baseline against which one can determine individual competence.

Training managers can use the validated competencies and performance statements as a benchmark for self-assessment and to identify areas needing further development. This is of great importance for training managers, especially since many were originally subject matter experts or managers from other functions. The competencies and performance statements provide insight into the range of activities for which a training manager is responsible. Novice training managers may not be familiar with the array of competencies encompassed by the training manager role until they review the IBSTPI standards. They need to demonstrate competence in the professional foundations domain, at a minimum, as well as in instructional design, strategic planning, leadership skills, management skills, and business skills.

Training managers who have been in their roles for some years may be surprised at skill areas now considered important. Competencies that apply to training managers with more experience include performance analysis, change management, the three competencies in the design and development domain, and knowledge management. For training managers intending to move into a specialist role (such as managing a team of instructional designers), the standards provide guidance on the range of skills and knowledge required and serve as a basis for planning professional development. Training managers can also use the standards to assess the current and future capability of their training department.

The questions in Table 4.1 are useful when training managers are planning for their professional development. Self-assessment can be undertaken in relation to the complete set or only those competencies and performance statements that are relevant to one's current or future job role.

Table 4.1 Questions for Training Managers Planning Professional Development

1. Which competencies or performance capabilities are required by my current job assignments?
2. In which of these am I weak or under-developed?
3. Which competency or performance capability will be required for future work assignments, anticipated changes in my job, or promotional opportunities?
4. Which competencies or performance statements will assume greater relevance in my organization in the near future?
5. In which competency am I interested in developing greater proficiency? What internal resources are available to help me achieve this goal?

Training managers with large staffs can also use the competencies to assess the strengths and weaknesses of their subordinate managers and staffs. For example, they can build checklists for staff self-assessment prior to annual performance appraisals. These self-assessments can also be useful to the training manager when assembling teams for projects that require specific skill sets.

The standards can also be used to clarify roles and functions in the training department and in the development of job descriptions. The competencies can become the basis for determining recruitment needs as training departments expand and move into areas of expertise that have not traditionally been associated with training (e.g., change management and knowledge management),. They also provide a set of objective criteria for assessing the capabilities of applicants when recruiting new staff.

Competency Use by Organizational Decision-makers

Organizations today expect more of the training function than they did in the past. Many decision makers, however, lack the experience or knowledge to determine what type of person to hire to manage the training function. This may be particularly important following a major corporate restructuring in which the role of the training function undergoes significant expansion or change in focus. This lack of knowledge is also a factor in companies that have previously relied on external vendors for their training but now wish to establish an in-house training function. It would be helpful in both cases to use the competencies and performance statements as a starting point to review or determine the role of the training function and identify the specific skills that the training manager will require.

A training function should reflect the organization it serves. The first step in establishing or reorganizing a training department and determining the nature and scope of the training manager role is to review the nature of the organization. For example, is the organization local, regional, national, or global? Does it manufacture a product or provide a service? Is it operating in a stable environment or competing in a volatile market? The answers to these questions will have a bearing on the nature of the training organization being established and, therefore, on the skills and knowledge requirements of the training manager being hired.

The second step is to determine aspects of the modus operandi of the training function. For example, will the department be organized around a centralized or decentralized model? Will it be required to generate its own income or will it be given a budget? Does management expect the training function to demonstrate measurable impact on organizational goals? Will all training products and services be produced internally or will some be outsourced? Does the training manager need to be a subject matter expert in the business of the organization? Will the training manager be part of the senior management team or reporting to senior management? Will the training manager have a training staff or operate solo?

The answers to these questions define the type of training manager that should be appointed. For example, an organization that does not intend to have a team of qualified professional staff in the department will need to hire a strong human resource or organization development generalist with prior experience in a training role. A large international or-

ganization may wish to recruit a training manager with a high degree of general management experience and demonstrated skill in the competencies in the professional foundations and administration domains, knowing that other staff in the training department will provide the specialized expertise required. A smaller organization operating at a local or regional level may require a training manager with more experience and skill in the performance analysis and planning, and design and development domains.

Table 4.2 provides examples of questions on the role of the training manager. Answering these and similar questions establishes a framework for identifying the nature of the training department and the skills and knowledge needed by the incoming training manager. The competencies and performance statements can also be used to assess training manager candidates in the recruiting process.

Table 4.2 Questions for Organizational Decision Makers
1. Will the training manager be required to conduct performance analysis, and develop and implement a range of solutions?
2. Will the training manager have a team of qualified professionals?
3. To what extent will training design, development, delivery and evaluation be done in-house rather than using vendors?
4. Will the training manager or department require expertise in technology and multimedia?
5. Will the training department's customers be internal only or include external customers?

Finally, the IBSTPI competency standards can be used by organizational decision-makers for benchmarking. These competencies and performance statements represent the current ideal standards for managing a training and performance improvement department. The competencies can, therefore, be easily used as a basis for benchmarking the best training practices in other organizations.

Competency Use by Academics

Many colleges, universities, and private training organizations provide formal and informal education for prospective or practicing training managers and performance improvement professionals. Programs

relevant to training managers and performance improvement professionals at the university level can be found in areas such as schools of business, colleges of education, and departments of psychology. These programs can be related to a variety of disciplines, including human resource development, adult education, instructional technology or design, organizational behavior and development, and management. In general, courses related to the work of training managers are embedded in broader curriculum offerings.

Outstanding academic programs are based to a great extent upon relevant and forward-thinking curricula. They are not only grounded in the literature and thinking of the field, but also upon the needs of those organizations that hire their graduates. The IBSTPI competency standards provide a reliable basis for determining these needs, because of their currency; comprehensive scope applicable to a variety of training manager position; applicability to a broad range of organizations and industries; and practitioner-based data which attests to their validation on a global scale.

The performance statements offer particularly clear guidance for course construction. Both the competencies and performance statements are also useful for curriculum review and revision. Moreover, programs applying for accreditation can use the IBSTPI standards as a sound rationale for their curriculum, one that firmly links theory to practice. Faculty can use the questions in Table 4.3 to assess their curriculum against the IBSTPI standards.

Table 4.3 Questions for Curriculum Reviewers

Questions	Yes	No
1. Are each of the four competency domains covered in the curriculum?	❑	❑
2. Is the curriculum balanced (as opposed to over emphasizing one domain at the expense of another)?	❑	❑
3. Is there a rationale for the distinction between basic and advanced courses?	❑	❑
4. Are the competencies used to advise students interested in the different types of training manager roles?	❑	❑
5. Are the competencies used as a basis for recommending courses in other departments?	❑	❑
6. Are the competencies used as a guide to help students choose appropriate internship and work study placements?	❑	❑
7. Does the curriculum address the specialized and selective needs of students who are currently working in training manager roles?	❑	❑

The IBSTPI standards have a high degree of credibility in the training and performance profession. Aligning a curriculum or individual courses with the standards insures that students are receiving a balanced and wide-ranging coverage of the components in the training manager role. Academic programs that base their curriculum on the standards can be confident that they are providing instruction most likely to develop the capabilities required of training managers in the work environment.

Competency Use by Professional Associations and Training Consultants

Not all those in training manager roles have received formal training in a field of study directly related to training and performance improvement. This was confirmed by the research conducted to validate these competencies. The expertise of many of these training managers has been developed entirely on the job with their only related background being managerial experience in other fields. In other cases, training managers were subject matter experts who were appointed to serve as trainers and then, with demonstrated success, became training managers. Both of these groups have traditionally supplemented their knowledge acquired on the job by attending professional workshops and seminars.

Two groups that develop and offer these professional development opportunities to training managers are professional associations and training consultants. Professional associations provide educational opportunities through workshops, seminars, chapter meetings, conferences, and publications, including electronic newsletters. Training consultants, both individual providers and members of large consulting companies, offer general as well as customized workshops.

Both groups should find the competency standards to be valuable as a basis for developing their offerings. They can use the competencies and performance statements in much the same way as academic faculty do to insure that their content encompasses the key skills and areas of knowledge. Courses can be broad in their coverage of the competencies or focused on specific areas, such as the training manager's role in organizational change or how to develop strategic plans for a training organization. The broad acceptance of the IBSTPI standards within the profession adds to the credibility of workshops based on them. Questions that may be helpful to professional associations and training providers in developing course offerings for training managers are given in Table 4.4

Table 4.4 Questions for Professional Associations and Training Consultants

Questions	Yes	No
1. Are the development opportunities tailored to the needs of practitioners without formal qualifications as training managers?	❑	❑
2. Are offerings clearly identifiable as intermediate or advanced?	❑	❑
3. Do the development opportunities focus on the competencies in which practitioners typically do not perform well?	❑	❑
4. Do workshops provide opportunity for practice and feedback?	❑	❑
5. Are attendees assessed to confirm proficiency in the competencies?	❑	❑
6. Are development opportunities available on-line for those who cannot attend class-based events?	❑	❑

Competency Use for Professional Certification

The development of standards of practice for a particular professional group raises the issue of professional certification. Certification has been defined as a voluntary process by which a professional association or organization measures and reports on the degree of competence of individual practitioners (Gilley, Geis, & Seyfer, 1987). In certifying its members, a professional association asserts that these practitioners have demonstrated a specific degree of knowledge and skill. In some professions, only those who are certified are permitted to use a particular title. Certification, therefore, constitutes a formal and public definition of a profession. At the same time practitioner competence is assured and professional standards are maintained. Certification is also one method of protecting the public, since it enables consumers of the services offered by the profession to distinguish between those who have demonstrated a specific level of competency and those who have not (Browning, Bugbee, & Mullins, 1996).

Pros and Cons of Certification

Certification can lead to three immediate and desirable outcomes. First, it establishes a basis for selecting new members of the profession. Second, it provides a sound basis for training new members, and third, it can establish a basis for upgrading the skills of current practitioners. Over time, these outcomes can result in a general improvement in the competence of those individuals who are certified and increase the confidence of others in these professions.

Certification enhances the reputation and public image of the profession, even as it seeks to protect the public and employers from incompetent practitioners. This is one reason why it draws support from many quarters. Certification typically requires persons to be judged competent by their peers according to predetermined criteria before they can practice in the profession. In most cases, the basis upon which the judgment is made is a professional certification exam. Sometimes these examinations only have a written component. Sometimes there are performance components as well. Since there are continual changes in knowledge and performance expectations in any profession, the criteria for demonstrating competency are typically revised from time to time. These evolving criteria embody the most current definition of competency for the profession.

While many advocate certification as a means to upgrading their profession, there are those who express reservations at the prospect (Gilley, Geis, & Seyfer, 1987). They may feel, for example, that their livelihood could be at risk if they do not invest in the time and expense required for certification. Otherwise successful practitioners may not satisfy the certification requirements when formal testing is the medium of assessment. It is therefore not unusual for some professional groups to recommend that current practitioners be grandfathered into the system and not be required to undergo certification when it is introduced. Such a decision, however, can lead to a situation in which public assurances of competency only apply to certain sectors of the professional group, typically the newer members. This, in turn, may make the issues of civil and legal liability of organizations even more difficult to manage.

No certification process can be instituted without cost, both to organizations as well as individuals. Typically a professional organization manages the certification process and maintains records of who is certified, who has been recertified and who has lost their certification. These administrative costs are usually borne by the individuals who are certified. They can require a substantial investment, and some question whether the certification results in increased future earnings that warrant the investment. For those who already have a qualification in the field, certification may represent additional costs with relatively little benefit.

Certification of Training Managers

Currently training managers are not typically certified, especially in the United States. In considering the professional certification of training managers, several issues would need to be resolved. First, who

should be certified? Should there be a generic certification for all training managers or should there be different certifications for different training manager roles? Three special roles are discussed in chapter 5 that could serve as the basis for such certification. However, if these endorsements would not facilitate appointment to one of these positions, their value is certainly questionable. The answers to these and other related issues are not readily apparent.

Another question posed in relation to certification concerns whether it duplicates an academic credential. Some consider the conferring of a graduate degree in human resource development or a related field provides a form of certification. As noted, many competent training managers have not obtained a degree in human resource development.

A third issue involves concerns about the nature of the testing and measurement upon which the certification would be based. These concerns are valid. Testing which does not involve the demonstration of skills is considered by many to be of minimal value. Assessment of skill must be rigorous enough that certification can be shown in a court of law that it clearly discriminates between fully competent and less competent practitioners.

Finally, some do not believe it is possible to certify performance as complex and context-specific as that of a training manager. This argument has been raised in relation to many other professional groups. It may prove to be a challenge to develop certification for training managers, but the IBSTPI standards provide a data-based foundation for developing such a certification process. Certification would likely be welcomed by some organizations that hire training managers as well as by some training managers themselves.

Conclusions

This chapter reviews some applications of the training manager competencies. While the primary beneficiaries of these revised standards may be training managers, other groups that can use them include academics, professional associations, training consultants, and organizational decision-makers. The competencies are in fact useful to anyone with an interest in the field, either as a practitioner or an academic. The issue of certification is unresolved and may well continue to be discussed by the profession.

5

Applications for Special Training Manager Roles

Training manager roles often vary greatly among organizations and even within the same organization. These differences are especially apparent when the training manager roles are compared among organizations of varying sizes. Indeed, the label itself is not even used consistently. While these variations often result from the unique history or culture of a given organization, training manager roles can increasingly be categorized across organizations by function. In a sense, these common functions become a type of specialization, and correspondingly the persons who assume these specialized roles demonstrate, on a routine basis, only a subset of the comprehensive list of training manager competencies.

While training management itself can be viewed as a specialized form of management in general, even further specialization among managers of the training function is common in large organizations (those with which this book is primarily concerned). This reflects not only the complexity of the task of providing training for large numbers of employees, but also the realities of organizational structure and hierarchies. Moreover, when organizations have a global focus, training departments and their managers are even more likely to have specialized interests and goals.

The Nature of Training Manager Specialties

Unique training manager roles tend to evolve to a great extent as a result of organizational growth, growth that produces structural hierarchies within an organization or a preponderance of activity in a given area of the training function. While these special roles are often unique to a given organization, three distinct training manager roles are common in many types of organizations. They are:

1. *The Executive Training Manager:* the senior manager to whom function-specific training managers report;
2. *The Design-Development Manager:* the manager of the planning and production of training materials and programs; and
3. *The Manager of Training Administration and Delivery:* the person responsible for the scheduling and delivery of the training programs.

Although these are not the only special roles of training managers, they are the most widely recognizable ones. In some organizations, these roles may be combined or separated depending upon organizational idiosyncrasies. For example, design/development functions are combined with training delivery responsibilities in many cases.

These specializations do not downgrade or supplant the role of the generic training manager. Generalist managers are still the norm in organizations with small training departments. Here the manager may also design instruction, as well as serve as the key trainer.

The competencies that are required by each of the major specialist roles are identified in Table 5.1. Within each of the three training manager roles, the various required skills have been grouped into the four competency domains: professional foundations, performance analysis and planning, design and development, and administration. The designations in Table 5.1 were made and then validated by generalist and specialist training managers from business, government and academia.

Some of the competencies are termed *primary* (designated by an upper case P) and some are labeled as *supporting* (designated by a lower case s). Primary competencies are those that are most critical to the specialization and those that tend to be performed most frequently. A training manager working in a specialty position requires expertise in the primary competency areas. The supporting ones, while necessary, are usually not as central to the performance of the role in most job situations

on a daily basis. The mature specialist is able to demonstrate both primary and supporting competencies. Undesignated competencies are not unimportant; rather they reflect skills less frequently demonstrated.

Training manager specialists typically have an in-depth knowledge of the essential management skills, as well as an understanding of the elements of training design and the techniques of organizational improvement. They are aware of the larger goals of the organization, as well as the relationships among the various training functions. As such the training manager has a vital position in the organization and influences to a great extent the success of the training venture at large. These three unique roles will be discussed here.

The Executive Training Manager

The executive training manager may hold a number of job titles across organizations. For example, he or she may be a human resource vice president, a director of training, or a chief learning officer. Regardless of the title, this person typically serves as part of the organization's policy team and is in a position to be an advocate of the training function and to situate training activities in a fashion so that they serve the larger mission of the organization. The executive training manager is typically not involved in the details of planning or delivering the organization's training. Other training managers tend to supervise these operations. Instead, the executive's job is typically more strategic in nature.

Training executives appear at various levels of the organization's structure, from mid-management to very senior positions. The number of training executives throughout an organization depends to a great extent upon company size and complexity. A given training executive may or may not have international responsibilities, although large organizations tend to have global interests.

The training manager competencies that encompass the executive's critical repertoire of skills relate primarily to: (1) professional foundations; (2) performance analysis and planning, with emphasis on strategic planning and organizational change; and (3) administration, with emphasis on leadership skills. While executives should understand the training design and development process, they spend little time on a daily basis intimately involved in such work.

Table 5.1. Special Training Manager Roles: Primary and Supporting Competencies

PROFESSIONAL FOUNDATIONS	Executive	Design/ Development	Administration & Delivery
1. Communicate effectively in written, oral, and visual form.	**P**	**P**	**S**
a. Prepare messages that are clear, concise, and grammatically correct.	P	P	
b. Use language appropriate to the audience and context.	P	S	
c. Use the language of the organization to communicate training and performance concepts.	P	P	
d. Simplify and summarize complex information.	S	S	
e. Use interpersonal communication skills to establish and maintain effective working relationships.	P	P	P
f. Use active listening skills in all situations.	S	S	
g. Use consulting skills to clarify issues.		S	
h. Use negotiation skills to achieve goals.	P	S	
i. Facilitate meetings effectively.	S	S	S
j. Deliver presentations that engage and persuade.	S		
k. Use visuals to inform and motivate.	S		
l. Use technology to enhance communication.		S	
2. Comply with established ethical and legal standards.	**P**	**P**	**S**
a. Comply with organizational and professional codes of ethics.	P	S	S
b. Comply with ethical and legal requirements for confidentiality and anonymity.	S		
c. Avoid internal and external conflicts of interest.	P		
d. Comply with the organization's proprietary information, electronic security, and property protection regulations.	S	P	
e. Comply with the legal requirements of copyright and other intellectual property laws.		P	
f. Adhere to legal procedures to protect the rights of the organization, employees, and customers.		S	
3. Maintain networks to advocate for and support the training and performance function.	**P**	**P**	
a. Establish cross-functional alliances within the organization.	P	P	

	Executive	Design/ Development	Administration & Delivery
b. Maintain industry-specific contacts for benchmarking.	s		
c. Establish ongoing relationships with suppliers and customers.		P	P
d. Represent and promote your organization within training and other professional communities.	s		
4. Update and improve professional and business knowledge, skills, and attitudes.	**P**	**P**	
a. Keep up-to-date with and apply relevant developments in training, performance, and related fields.		P	
b. Maintain knowledge of the products, services, and operations of the organization.	P	s	
c. Keep up-to-date with developments in the business of the organization.	P	s	
d. Keep up-to-date with customer requirements.	P	P	s
e. Continuously update technology skills.		s	s
f. Maintain awareness of social, cultural, and political trends and issues and their implications for the organization.			
g. Participate in professional activities.			
PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS AND PLANNING			
5. Develop and monitor a strategic plan.	**P**	**P**	
a. Align the training function with the organization's vision and mission.	P	P	
b. Use advisory groups to review plans and assist with their implementation.	s		
c. Establish metrics to monitor the training function's performance against its strategic plan.	s	s	
d. Review the strategic plan periodically and adjust training goals as required.	s	s	
6. Use performance analysis to improve the organization.		**s**	
a. Act as an internal consultant to identify performance problems and opportunities.		s	
b. Use a systems perspective to analyze performance problems.		s	

	Executive	Design/ Development	Administration & Delivery
c. Determine the consequences of not taking action to solve performance problems.		s	
d. Recommend cost-effective performance solutions.		s	
e. Advocate and use non-instructional solutions when appropriate.		s	
f. Insure the use of analysis to determine knowledge and skill requirements.		s	
7 Plan and promote organizational change.	P	s	
a. Define expectations and establish criteria for success.			
b. Determine the potential political, economic, social, cultural, and emotional impact of performance solutions.		s	
c. Inform stakeholders of the benefits, risks, conditions for success, timelines, and costs of proposed solutions.		s	
d. Solicit confirmation and support for proposed changes.	P	s	
e. Promote lifelong learning as a continuous improvement process for the organization.			
DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT			
8. Insure the application of instructional design principles.		P	
a. Adapt design processes to meet the needs of the organization.		s	
b. Insure that design solutions reflect the characteristics of the organization.		s	
c. Insure that design solutions reflect the diversity of learner characteristics in the organization.		s	
d. Promote the effective use of instructional design processes.		P	
9. Use technology to enhance the training function.		P	P
a. Analyze existing and emerging technologies and their uses in the organization.		P	s
b. Use technology to support the administration of the training function.			P
c. Use technology to design, deliver, and administer training interventions.		P	P
d. Promote effective e-learning solutions.	s	P	

	Executive	Design/ Development	Administration & Delivery
e. Select technology that is compatible with the organization and the training role.		P	s
f. Model the appropriate use of technology within the organization.		s	s
10. Evaluate training and performance interventions.	**P**		
a. Develop comprehensive evaluation policies and strategies for the training function.		P	
b. Document direct and indirect costs of training and performance solutions.		P	s
c. Document the impact of training and performance solutions.		s	
d. Use evaluation data to enhance the quality of training and performance solutions.		P	
e. Disseminate evaluation data to all project stakeholders.		s	
f. Evaluate and revise project processes and procedures.		P	
ADMINISTRATION			
11. Apply leadership skills to the training function.	**P**	**s**	
a. Position the training function as a strategic partner in achieving business goals.	P	s	
b. Develop organizational support for training strategies and solutions.	P	s	
c. Market the training function.	P	s	
d. Insure that training services and products reflect organizational philosophy, culture, and brand identity.	s	s	
e. Recruit and select training staff.	P	P	P
f. Develop staff to enhance their professional skills and the training function.			s
g. Create and build teams to meet project goals.		P	
h. Cultivate a sense of ownership within project teams.			
i. Identify and minimize the effects of internal barriers on achieving project goals.	P	P	
12. Apply management skills to the training function.	**s**	**P**	**P**
a. Model a customer-focused business style.	P	P	P

	Executive	Design/ Development	Administration & Delivery
b. Manage relationships with internal and external consultants.		s	P
c. Manage outsourcing.			s
d. Anticipate and resolve conflicts.	s	s	s
e. Manage and direct training personnel.		P	P
f. Manage and direct multiple projects.		P	
g. Deliver products and services on a timely basis.		P	P
13. Apply business skills to the training function.		**P**	**P**
a. Manage the training function as a model of effective business practice.	s	s	s
b. Promote the business case for performance interventions.		P	
c. Develop budgets.	P	P	P
d. Manage financial and material resources.		P	P
e. Maintain a business data collection, retrieval, and reporting system.			s
f. Maintain and schedule training facilities and equipment.			P
g. Publish materials and documents in a professional, economical, and timely manner.			P
14. Implement knowledge management solutions.		**s**	
a. Promote knowledge management within the training function and the organization.	s	s	
b. Partner in the establishment of processes to gather, store, retrieve, and share information.	s	s	
c. Establish processes to reuse and add value to existing knowledge.		s	
d. Establish knowledge-sharing communities.			
e. Use knowledge management solutions to integrate learning into the work environment.		s	

P – The primary competencies of the training manager, those that are most critical to the specialization.

s – Supporting competencies of the training manager, those that are necessary, but usually not as central to the performance of the role in most job situations.

Blank – Not significant aspects of the day-to-day job, or not completed by the training manager.

Professional Foundations Skills

Because of the broad scope of the job and the frequent interactions with non-training personnel, executive training managers are exceedingly dependent upon general areas of managerial competence–communications, ethical and legal standards, networking, and basic knowledge of the business.

Communications. Effective communications skills are paramount to the success of a training manager at this level because the executive bridges the interests of the organization at large and those involved only in training. Since they often serve as senior officers of the company, their obligations are first to the organization's larger mission and then to the interests of the training departments. Because of this unique position, they must speak the languages of two worlds, the technical languages of trainers and the language of the organizational groups with which they interact.

Executives work by interacting with others on both a formal and informal basis. In both types of communications situations, executives must be conscious of adapting training language to that of the organization. Executives quickly learn that training only becomes a valued part of an organization at large if its goals and activities can be related to the "business of the business." Without this orientation, executives are hard pressed to establish and maintain good working relationships with other executives or negotiate support for the training departments.

Formal communication skills are also required by executives. This may involve using visuals and technology to give prepared presentations to large groups. Being able to effectively use tools such as PowerPoint, charts, and video clips enhances the quality and professionalism of such presentations. Nonetheless, expertise in large group presentations is typically not as critical to an executive's success as being able to communicate forcefully on a one-on-one basis or in small groups.

Ethical and legal standards. Corporate executives today are constantly being reminded of their obligations to guarantee company compliance with all pertinent ethical and legal standards. The executive training manager is particularly responsible for insuring that the organization observes not only the traditional ethical and legal standards with respect to training, but also newer standards, such as those that have evolved as a result of the emerging technologies.

In reality, the training executive, as part of the senior management team, is likely to be faced with the legal consequences of general corpo-

rate strategies, in addition to training activities. Training executives rarely have to make specific training decisions with ethical or legal implications. However, they often educate other executives of the legal and ethical implications of routine training practice in today's world.

Networking. One of the key roles of a training executive is that of being an advocate for the training and performance improvement functions of the organization. Executives build upon their relationships with senior decision makers to influence training budgets and staffing. If downsizing or restructuring should occur, the well-regarded training executive can do much to protect the training function. Conversely, the training executive needs to stayed attuned to the needs of the various training groups to adequately represent them at the senior level. This requires one to have unique skills of communication and persuasion, as well as having established a position of authority and respect within the organization and preferably within the training industry at large.

Such a position is dependent upon a wide range of previously established networks and relationships with people inside and outside of the organization. Today the breadth of these relationships is more important than ever before. In global organizations, it is the executive training manager who is typically the link with the managers of the dispersed training groups. Representing the perspectives of these distant departments in the central office is an important part of the executive's role. Training executives also need to network with those in similar roles at other organizations to obtain information on best practices used as benchmarks.

Within a given organization, the training departments are intimately involved in enhancing the performance and productivity of all other units of the organization. The primary "customers" of the training executive are the functional groups within the organization: the buyers of the training departments' products and services. The executive lays the groundwork for establishing and maintaining the working relationships with these units.

Basic knowledge of the business. Like all training managers, it is important for the executive to keep up-to-date with the field. However, the most critical part of this professional development for the executive pertains not to advancements in the training and performance improvement fields, but rather in his or her knowledge of the products and services of the larger organization. If executives of any type lose touch with changes in customer needs or changes in the industry, then their impact within the organization is weakened. The influence of the training de-

partments would then be put in jeopardy as a consequence.

Performance Analysis and Planning Skills

The training executive's concern with competencies in the domains of performance analysis and planning is on an organization-wide level. As a major company leader, the training executive is concerned with the growth of the organization. As such, the competencies most frequently demonstrated primarily concern strategic planning and organizational change.

Strategic planning. In the best of situations, the training and development function plays a strategic role in the organization. In these situations, the training executive works with the senior management team to establish policy and engage in long-term planning and direction-setting for the organization. As a part of this process, he or she must see that the training function is aligned with the larger mission and vision of the organization. Training executives must make sure that all training strategies, whether they be high or low level, are aligned with the overall goals and strategic direction of the organization. Without this consistency, training will lack credibility within the organization.

Langdon (2000) describes the multifaceted nature of performance alignment. First, the performances of the various business units of the organization must be linked to the output of the organization (typically some product, service, or knowledge). Output must then be related to important consequences (typically profit and other factors such as societal worth and personal satisfaction). Next, inputs (such as client needs and resources) need to be aligned with the outputs. Finally, processes must be devised to use the inputs to achieve the outputs and the consequences.

Typically this process begins at the highest management levels of the organization with the formation of an overall organizational strategy. The training executive must insure that the training function is aligned with this strategy. Training executives are intimately involved in this complex process of planning and alignment. It is a process that takes place both by working at the senior management levels and by working with other training managers in the organization to make sure that their unit strategic plans are congruent with the plans of the organization as a whole. The executive has a working knowledge of organizational priorities and future plans and a comprehensive perspective of the com-

pany. This background can facilitate the strategic alignment desired when working with lower-level training managers.

Organizational change. Training managers with performance improvement perspectives are automatically thrust into organizational change efforts. This is true for the training executive as well as for those lower-level training managers working on specific performance improvement projects. Executive involvement, however, is typically in terms of policy formation and garnering general support for change initiatives. This process often overlaps with efforts to construct and implement the organization's strategic plans. It is also an important aspect of training leadership.

Administration Skills

The broad category of administration skills includes leadership, management and business skills. Because training executives deal more at the policy level than the project implementation level, their work performance more frequently utilizes leadership competencies than management and business competencies.

Leadership skills. The training executive provides general leadership in positioning training as an important part of the organization and in doing so sees that the vision of the organization includes training. It is the training executive's job to raise the profile of the training function throughout the organization.

More importantly, the training executive continually cultivates support for training and performance improvement enterprises and markets the training function throughout the organization. This can be a process that is both guided by grass roots training projects, as well as being guided by policy and directives from above. Interacting with other senior executives, the executives garner support for those performance improvement changes recommended by the various training units. This is not only the role of a cheerleader, but of an educator as well. It is the training executive's job to show other senior staff how the larger non-instructional roles of training and performance improvement departments can benefit the organization. It is the training executive's job to support and facilitate the various projects of the training departments by garnering resources and removing or minimizing organizational barriers to their work.

The training executive also has responsibility for recruiting and selecting those training managers who report to him or her. This is par-

ticularly important as such recruitment impacts expansion of the training function or the introduction of new training dimensions. A recent example of this has been the introduction of a knowledge management function in many organizations.

Management and business skills. Since executive training managers are more likely to be addressing "the big picture" of training, they are consequently less involved in specific projects. As such they have little to do with day-to-day management of projects and training personnel. They are more likely to insure that sound business practices are being upheld by working through their direct reports.

Training executives direct the budgeting process within the training function. They rely on those training managers below them organizationally to develop their own budgets first. The executive then collaborates with them to produce the final training budget. Finally, it is the executive's responsibility to shepherd the budget through the financial approval process.

The Manager of Training Design and Development

The training manager in many organizations oversees a staff ranging from instructors, training administrators, and multimedia specialists to instructional designers. If the organization is small, each staff member usually functions in multiple roles. It is not uncommon in larger organizations—whether they are in military, government, or corporate environments—to have a separate unit dedicated to the design and development of training products and a training manager whose sole job is to manage this function. However, the design-development managers, especially those working in large organizations with highly differentiated staffing, often do not function as designers or developers at all.

It is important to distinguish between true managers of training design and development and those who serve in a *project* management role.[1] The scope of the project manager's role is limited by time and a particular set of deliverables. When the project is completed, so is the task of the project manager. In contrast, the training manager's role is organizationally set and limited to a particular group of employees, a given

1. Project management competencies are discussed in Richey, Fields, & Foxon's (2001) *Instructional Designer Competencies: The Standards.* See pages 82–83.

budget, and a particular set of responsibilities. The role is not limited by time, but is on-going.

The design-development specialization requires expertise across all four domains and in ten of the 14 competency areas. Competence is required in: (1) professional foundations; (2) performance analysis and planning, only with respect to strategic planning; (3) design and development; and (4) administration, especially in the areas of management and business skills. The design-development manager is actively engaged in each of these areas of competence on a daily basis.

Professional Foundations Skills

The nature of design and development work demands a high level of skill on the part of the manager in the professional core skills of communications, networking, and maintaining currency in professional and business expertise. Ethical and legal practices are also integral to this specialization.

Communications. The design-development manager spends considerable time every day communicating both internally and externally, most often in meetings. Internal meetings can range from discussions with senior management, subject matter experts, program stakeholders, finance, and other functions to meetings with the design team in order to resolve problems or begin planning on a new project. Meetings and discussions with external clients often involve negotiating with vendors and suppliers, as well as reviewing new products and services marketed to the design-development function.

Clear and concise communication without resorting to training or performance jargon is the key to developing credibility and achieving the team's goals. The important interpersonal skills for the design-development training manager are the ability to facilitate meetings, consult within the organization, and negotiate with internal partners and external vendors. Although more and more communication is now via electronic means, the ability to speak and write persuasively remains critical. In addition, competence in presenting data clearly and making a compelling business case are basic communication skill requirements for the design-development manager.

Ethical and legal standards. Design-development managers frequently deal with ethical and legal issues, particularly with respect to intellectual property and copyright. This has become a major concern with the

transition to e-learning and with training products increasingly using information and graphics from the Internet.

Publishers and other holders of intellectual property rights have become very aggressive in protecting their rights, to the extent of lobbying for strict laws with serious penalties for infringement and even for attempts to circumvent digital rights management (copy-protection) schemes in the United States and Europe. Protected intellectual property includes software licenses, images on the World Wide Web, and clips from music or motion pictures, including short excerpts that until a few years ago might have been considered fair use (or fair dealing, as it is referred to in Canada and the UK). To minimize exposure, design-development managers and their employees must carefully monitor their use of software and trademarked and copyrighted information in the training and performance improvement products, meeting materials, and presentations that they develop. Concern for proprietary information is also key for the design and development manager, especially when external contractors are working on the team. Designers frequently deal with confidential information about products and processes. The design-development manager must build a team with a reputation for security of information and document procedures and agreements for non-disclosure.

The design and development manager has an obligation to insure that products and services comply with accessibility requirements for those with disabilities, as is legally required in many countries. Given the trend for less-developed countries to adopt new technology rapidly, design-development managers in every region should take the needs of disabled users into account even if not yet legally required to do so.

Networking. Networks give the design and development function visibility within the organization and provide a support base in a variety of ways. For example, training managers draw on their internal contacts when they need subject matter experts, content reviewers, or attendees for focus groups. The design-development manager should also build a professional network outside the organization in order to stay current with new products, training software, and methodologies that pertain to design and development function.

Because the design team is always dependent on the support of others in the organization to get their work done, building and maintaining networks is never far from the manager's mind.

Professional knowledge. Remaining current is a continuous responsibility for design-development managers. They must stay up-to-date

with the training and performance field, particularly in relation to technological developments affecting e-learning, as well as with changes in their own organization. Knowledge of changing customer requirements allows the design and development team to be proactive by anticipating needs and offering new services and approaches.

Performance Analysis and Planning Skills

Strategic planning is the only competency in this domain rated as primary for design-development training managers. Performance analysis and change management are less likely to occupy their time and are rated as secondary.

Strategic planning. The strategic plan provides the rationale for all design and development efforts. At the macro level, the plan is linked to the strategy of the larger organization. This insures that proposed training products and services are aligned with the performance needs of the organization. At a micro level, the strategic plan is a roadmap that itemizes the goals, resources, time lines, and deliverables that the function will focus on for the coming year.

The importance of the strategic plan cannot be underestimated. Too often training departments are criticized for developing products or offering services that do not address specific performance problems. In other cases, interventions are developed at the request of an individual manager. A strategic plan provides a base line against which the design-development manager assesses requests and insures that the efforts of the team are focused on organizational needs.

Design and Development Skills

It is no surprise that the three competencies in this domain are rated as primary for the design-delivery training manager. These competencies go to the heart of the role. The manager may not be an instructional designer or evaluator, nor highly knowledgeable about training technology, but as the manager of a design and development function he or she will deal with these competency areas on a day-to-day basis.

Instructional design. The training manager responsible for the design and development function is tasked daily with selling the importance of instructional design processes. There is an increasing reluctance to do analysis, for example. Too many people want training interventions developed within an unrealistic time frame, even if rapid prototyping or

similar design approaches are used. Managers are likely to find themselves constantly resisting the short cut mentality.

The design-development manager is the principal advocate for "doing it right" and also has an educational role within the organization, particularly where there is a shift away from traditional courses in favor of blended learning, electronic performance support systems, job aids, and learning communities. Associated with this shift has come the notion in many organizations that sound instructional design practice is no longer relevant. The design-development manager must counter this, and even if not an instructional designer by training, he or she needs enough knowledge of the field to be a credible and persuasive spokesperson.

A basic level of instructional design knowledge is also needed for recruiting new staff. The IBSTPI publication, *Instructional Design Competencies* (Richey, Fields, & Foxon, 2001), provides guidance and direction on this aspect of the manager's role.

Technology. The majority of the performance statements for this competency are rated as primary for the design-development manager. Technology has assumed a central role in the training function, and the manager is constantly involved in decisions about new technologies, e-learning design and delivery, technology upgrades, and how to capitalize on the advantages offered by new technology. The design-development manager is now required to be knowledgeable about project management tools, electronic meetings, content management systems, and learning management systems. The necessity to be up-to-date with technology is likely to accelerate in the coming decade.

The manager may encounter resistance in promoting the use of technology to enhance the training function from designers and developers because it requires major adjustments in how they do their job. Applications have to be mastered, and upgrading hardware is often time consuming and frustrating. Learners may resist web-based training, preferring paper and pencil evaluations, or they may find synchronous training classes too impersonal.

Evaluation. The design-development manager evaluates both the design process and the training products. Although the manager's focus is primarily on the formative and summative evaluation, other forms of evaluation such as confirmative, impact, and return on investment evaluation may also fall within the scope of the design-development manager if there is no evaluation team in the organization.

As with the other competencies in this domain, the manager may not have expertise in the field, but the role requires sufficient knowledge to

establish evaluation policies, select the appropriate form of evaluation, identify who should be involved in the evaluation process, and utilize the data to improve the design process and the end products.

Administration Skills

Design-development managers draw on leadership, management, and business skills constantly. These are the competencies that set managers apart from those who work for them.

Leadership skills. The performance skills rated as primary within this competency area pertain to staff recruitment and training, forming and developing project teams, and the removal of obstacles to getting their work done. As has already been stated, the design-development manager who is not trained in instructional design must be sufficiently knowledgeable about the field to be able to recruit new staff. Many managers invite the experienced team members, with whom the candidate will work, to be part of the interview process.

The leadership skills of the design-development manager are demonstrated in the ability to remove barriers to the successful completion of a project. Barriers typically include: processes that need to be changed; insufficient funding; political obstacles such as lack of support from management; conflict between stakeholders; and under-performing team members. The stronger the manager's internal network, the more effectively he or she will be able to remove these barriers.

Management skills. More than anything else, the role of the design-development manager is to effectively manage the function and the project teams in order to satisfy the customer, the end-user of the training products.

The preoccupation of the design-development manager is to insure that projects are completed on time, within budget, and to the specifications agreed on with the customer. Customer satisfaction and relationship building are primary concerns of the manager. A customer-focused business style emphasizes the needs of the customer, whether internal or external, above the needs of the design and development group.

Managing and directing staff on multiple projects requires considerable management skill. The scope of a project may be changed during the development phase forcing the manager to find additional resources if the deadline is to be met.

Business skills. Business issues are a daily concern for the design-de-

velopment manager. The business skills rated as primary deal with three areas—the business case, budgets, and resource management.

Promoting the business case for training and performance interventions is virtually a survival skill. In many organizations senior management will only allocate funding on the basis of a persuasive business case. They want the design-development manager to justify the expenditure requested for every project and to provide evidence that the outcomes will have a tangible impact on the organization. While this requirement increases the manager's workload, it makes it easier to refuse requests for courses that are not focused on performance improvement, or for which there is no business case to support the development.

The Manager of Training Administration and Delivery

In many large organizations there is such a massive array of training programs, courses and workshops offered each year that the implementation and management of this instruction requires not only extensive facilities but a separate staff as well. This staff naturally includes trainers, but often there are also a full array of technicians and other support staff. This large operation demands a training manager. The manager of training administration and delivery supervises a complex, often logistically-intricate operation.

Historically, the training delivery manager supervised not only the scheduling of instruction and registration of students, but also the scheduling and maintenance of rooms (often entire buildings) and equipment. This manager was responsible for publishing a course catalogue. Moreover, in most organizations this department was also responsible for maintaining training attendance and performance records as well.

Over the last few years, the job of the administration and delivery manager has changed in most organizations. Many training administration processes are now automated and much of the instruction is delivered online to employees at their workstations or in computer laboratories.

The skills required by a training manager who specializes in training administration and delivery differ considerably from other types of training managers. These training managers must simultaneously direct personnel, maintain facilities and equipment, and keep instructional materials current while insuring the smooth implementation of a large-scale operation. Yet, in a sense, this position is narrower in scope than the other specialty training managers. The primary professional founda-

tions competencies of a manager of training administration and delivery relate to: (1) professional foundations, especially with respect to interpersonal relationships and networking; (2) design and development, with respect only to technology use; and (3) administration, especially with respect to management and business skills and, to a lesser degree, leadership skills.

Professional Foundations Skills

While other types of training managers rely heavily on a wide range of foundational skills, this manager's primary competencies relate to establishing and maintaining good working relationships with people both inside and outside of the organization. These skills relate to interpersonal communications and networking.

Communications. The most important basic skills of the manager of training administration and delivery concern interpersonal relationships. These pertain to a great extent to those communications skills needed to establish effective working relationships with a variety of people in many job capacities throughout the organization. Anyone who has been in a position to be intimately involved with logistics and scheduling can appreciate the need to get along with people of all types, to be flexible, and to collaborate in the process of compromising and problem solving. Often these skills are as important as knowing the technical aspects of the job.

Building interpersonal relationships is usually a one-on-one effort. The administration-delivery training manager must establish these relationships with people such as instructors, trainees, vendors, administrative and technical staff, designers and evaluators. Effective communication means talking the language of each group and being cognizant of differing backgrounds and cultures, particularly if global operations are being managed.

In "the old days," these relationships were usually established on a personal face-to-face basis. Today it may be necessary to build these same relationships through e-mail with little opportunity to build personal friendships in the traditional manner. It may even be necessary to build relationships that have a global reach. Thus, the communication process takes on new dimensions and requires new skills.

Networking. The administration-delivery training manager also has to establish productive and friendly working relationships with those external to the organization. These include people such as suppliers,

contractors, and customers. The manager of any operation that is as resource-dependent as training delivery is obliged to become accustomed to the constraints imposed by factors such as vendor inventories or delivery schedules. Difficulties can often be overcome by relying upon an established network of support personnel cultivated within a supplier organization, for example. These networks are also built upon the strength of superior interpersonal relationships. The job of an administration-delivery training manager, in many respects, is as much a "people" job as it is a logistics one.

Design and Development Skills

In general, the manager of training administration and delivery is not concerned with the design or development of the instructional materials. These are simply part of the resources that he or she needs in order to implement the instruction. However, technology use is one exception.

Technology skills. Technology is critical to this job, and its importance is steadily increasing. The most critical use of technology is in training delivery, whether the instruction is group-based or individually oriented, and the administration and delivery manager must have fairly sophisticated technology skills in today's market.

Instructional delivery may be enhanced with simple or complex computer-based techniques. For example, the trainer may use PowerPoint slides or complex simulations, such as those used in training pilots. Employees may receive their instruction on computers at their workstations or at home and not even be required to attend sessions at a separate training facility. Alternatively, there may be kiosks in the workplace that provide computerized "just-in-time" training. Clearly this manager's job is complicated even more when the facilities and resources he or she manages are not in the same location.

While most departments have a team of technicians to support technology-based instruction, the administration and delivery manager must nonetheless be knowledgeable with respect to technology. Technology should aid the manager of training administration and delivery in scheduling, keeping student records, documenting training costs, and other management activities.

Administration Skills

The administration-delivery training manager's job responsibilities focus on logistics, organization, and details of the delivery implementation process. To accomplish this end efficiently and effectively, this type of training manager must possess skills pertaining to the supervision of personnel, facilities, resources, and data. Each of these entities involves administration competencies.

Leadership skills. The administration-delivery training manager relies more on management and business skills than leadership skills, with the exception of recruiting and training staff. This is critical to the success of a training delivery operation. The staffs are often large, although this is changing in training departments where technology is leading to downsizing. Not only are expert instructors required, but in today's e-learning environment, online trainers and facilitators are also necessary. While many of the skills are common to all delivery strategies, there are specialized abilities needed[2]. This training manager is typically responsible for recruiting all instructors.

In addition, technicians and support staff must be hired to assist instructors and maintain equipment. These positions are also of increasing importance with the expansion of technology-based instructional activities. In the case of delivery involving two-way interactive television, technicians are usually on site throughout instruction, serving at times in a producer-director capacity. Technical support personnel need to be available on demand throughout instruction when instruction is laboratory-based (either computer-oriented or content-specific laboratories). A fully competent staff is critical to successful training delivery operations.

This requires a training manager with a finely honed ability to evaluate people and their on-the-job performance. The administration and delivery manager must be able to select trainers who have superior presentation skills combined with credibility and experience. He or she must be able to select technical support persons who not only have a superior knowledge of technology, but who are also flexible, responsive, and customer-sensitive. Regardless of the quality of the instructional programs and facilities, without the proper trainers and training support staff, the programs will not be successful.

2. In 2004 IBSTPI will be publishing the third edition of *Instructor Competencies: The Standards.* This volume will present the updated instructor competencies and discuss them in terms of group instructor skills and online instructor skills.

Management skills. The most important part of the manager of training administration and delivery's job is to provide training services that are customer-focused and timely. This not only involves modeling the proper attitude one's self, but managing other people, so that they too reflect this attitude. Training services in many industries are sometimes obtained through outsourced personnel. In these cases, the management of training administration and delivery involves dealing with consultants and vendors as well as employees of the organization itself.

The next concern is to have the physical facilities and equipment and the training materials available when needed, in working order, and in sufficient quantity. This can be a huge undertaking for large-scale training delivery operations. It is a task that encompasses diverse activities, such as maintaining and upgrading facilities and equipment and printing instructional materials. Moreover, the more sophisticated the technology needs, the more likely it is that one must provide for as-needed troubleshooting, problem solving, and back-up facilities.

Business skills. Finally, the manager of training administration and delivery has business responsibilities. The operation must be conducted efficiently and yet still be cost-effective. This requires budgeting expertise. In addition, databases must be constructed and continually updated to provide reports to the organization as needed. Reports may relate to topics such as program schedules, attendance records, documentation of employee skill levels, and equipment inventories.

Some administration-delivery training managers are also responsible for producing all of the instructional materials used in each program. Not only does this involve the trainer's presentation and facilitation materials, but also those materials provided for trainees. It may include follow-up job aids and other refresher materials for employees to use on the job. Thus, this training manager becomes in essence the director of a small publishing house. Advances in online publishing are solving some problems related to this operation, but they also necessitate having a technologically-skilled staff.

Conclusions

This chapter has examined the competencies required of persons in three training manager roles that tend to have unique functions, especially in large organizations: the executive, the design and development manager, and the manager of training administration and delivery. Even

though competencies have been categorized by role, many managers find themselves in one or more of these roles on occasion. Those who consistently function in a single role develop unique expertise over time. However, it is not unusual for training managers to use their general management and leadership skills over the course of their careers in a number of different departments within the organization. A person may serve as a training manager for a period of time and then become a manager of another unrelated department.

The competencies associated with each role tend to represent task frequency more than task criticality. For example, for many training managers, ethics competencies are listed here as secondary, not because they are less important than other areas of competence, but because such decisions typically are made on a less frequent basis. They are not front and center on one's radar screen on a daily basis.

There are seven skill areas that are common to each role discussed in this chapter. These relate to: interpersonal communications (primary); meeting facilitation (secondary); recruiting staff (primary); customer-focused business style (primary); resolving conflicts (secondary); modeling business practices (secondary); and budgeting (primary). In addition, there are three other areas of practice that are common, but are not used with the same frequency across roles. They relate to ethical standards, customer requirements, and management skills.

It would be possible to argue that these ten skills may be core to effective management. None of the ten, however, are unique to the training and development field. Rather, they are skills that are common to all managers.

Part II

Validation

6

The Competency Validation Research

The IBSTPI Training Manager competencies are empirically-based, grounded in previous related research and a two-year research and development process which began in June, 1999. The research base of these competencies is from the training manager literature, with special emphasis upon:

1. The research by Judith Hale (1991), upon which the original IBSTPI training manager competencies are based;
2. The Kalman (2001) study, which examines the process by which one training department changed into a performance improvement organization and developed a partnership with senior management; and
3. The Andersen (2000) study, which identifies the competencies of human resource development generalists working in one-person departments.

The IBSTPI competency development process added further data collected from focus groups from the IBSTPI Board of Directors and an international sample of training managers and academics used for competency validation. The competencies were finalized and approved by the IBSTPI Board of Directors in June, 2001.

The Foundational Research

There are three studies (all doctoral dissertations) that contribute to the conceptual foundation of the new IBSTPI training manager competencies: Hale (1991), Kalman (2001) and Anderson (2000). Hale's work is based upon a broad sample of the field, including both academics and practitioners. Kalman's and Anderson's research examines very different types of training managers. Kalman studies a training manager working in a large, global organization with 26,000 employees. Anderson, on the other hand, studies the competencies of training managers she calls "solo performers," persons working in small organizations with only one training employee. Each of these studies provides a data-based perspective for the new competencies.

The Hale Study

Purpose and procedures. Hale (1991) conducted her research specifically to identify those competencies that define what training managers do regardless of the setting in which they operate. She also sought to identify those factors and background experiences that contribute to competent performance by training managers. The Hale research centers around four hypotheses suggesting that the skills and tasks performed by training managers do not differ from those performed by managers of other functions and that experts cannot agree on the skill and background characteristics that separate competent from incompetent training managers.

Hale solicits 16 experts to participate in the study. Selection criteria supported by the literature are used to identify these experts. There are three expert panels. One is made up of four professors and researchers that she labels *theorists,* another panel consists of six professors she labels *knowers,* and another consists of six practitioners she labels *doers.* She uses the Nominal Group Technique to guide the sessions with the three expert panels. This technique "is a structured group process designed to solicit input from a group yet control the bias that occurs during group interaction" (Hale, 1991, p. 47). These panels of experts react to areas of training manager competence identified in the literature.

Results. Seven general areas of managerial competence are gleaned from the literature. These include: intellectual or problem solving ability; communication skills; interpersonal skills; social and political skills; specialized expertise in the function being managed; expertise in managerial skills; and the ability to align with organizational objectives.

Specific training manager skills are identified through the sessions with the three panels of experts. She finds that the highest-ranking competencies for training managers are defined as important to all managers. These include communication skills; performance management; motivational leadership; the ability to monitor performance and productivity, and the ability to coordinate planning and implementation.

The panels of experts did find differences between training managers and managers of other functions with respect to management tasks. The principal task for the training manager is to manage training design, development, and delivery operations. Analyzing training needs and setting training goals are also identified as integral to the role. Hale's panels also identify factors that distinguish competent training managers from those who are not competent. The factors include: (1) the ability to produce effective, efficient and high quality solutions; and (2) a results-orientation that achieves organizational objectives.

Application of findings. The Hale (1991) research led directly to the construction of the first set of IBSTPI training manager competencies. These original competencies reflect not only Hale's literature review, but the specific responses by her three panels of experts.

The Kalman Study

Purpose and Procedures. The research of Kalman (2001) is a case study that explores the transformation of a corporate training department into a performance improvement organization. It investigates the use of strategic planning as a process that drives such a change process. The study addresses the following:

1. Factors that enhance and inhibit a training department's alignment with the larger organization;
2. Factors that enable a training department to gain influence with senior management;
3. The process used to implement new training strategies;
4. Factors that facilitate departmental reinvention; and
5. The evolving role of the reinvented department.

Throughout this study the role of the training manager is paramount. Senior corporate training employees of a Fortune 500 company were observed over a 21-month period. Data include: (1) interviews with all vice-presidents and senior managers; (2) surveys of the global organization's 60 decentralized training groups; (3) notes from key meetings of

company leadership, work groups and planning teams; (4) the five-part plan for the new training strategy; and (5) the process of implementing the plan.

Results. Eight themes resulted from this research. They relate to:

1. Building influence through relationships, brainpower and experience;
2. Building buy-in and support;
3. Creating an image that builds executive support;
4. The process of strategy development and implementation;
5. Confronting the "undiscussables";
6. Inventing jargon that bonds people together;
7. Telling the training story in the boardroom; and
8. Necessary skill combinations (communications skills, training knowledge and expertise, business acumen, and leadership).

The full explanation of how each of these themes developed provides answers to the major questions of this study.

The first question relates to aligning the training department with the organization. The most important factors in this process are planning, people, process components, personality, ability and political awareness. Specifically, it is critical to establish a senior management governance body and to build partnerships with strategic business unit managers. While an operational plan needs to be developed to improve the department's efficiency, it is also important to identify priority business projects of the organization to facilitate the alignment process.

Gaining influence with senior management is a matter of developing credibility and trust. To a great extent this process involves demonstrating an understanding of the "business of the business" and creating an interdependent relationship with senior management. Communication skills are critical when it comes to telling a simple, powerful message that fulfills the senior managers' expectations.

To implement the new training strategy, the training manager must build relationships with the senior managers of the various business units. This can by done by providing assistance on various projects and demonstrating "quick wins." It is important that the training manager makes sure that everyone has a common understanding of the new strategy. Moreover, training managers should be aware that interest and energy for the transformation effort may drop at times.

The training manager must partner with the business units, not with

human resources, in order to be successful. Only in this way can one change how the various senior managers think about training and performance issues. The manager needs to see that training is no longer viewed only as a passive, internal provider of training solutions, but rather is seen as an active partner of senior management in solving business problems and in improving the organization's efficiency and competitive advantage. The image must be that of a unit that adds value to the organization.

Application of Findings. The Kalman (2001) research provides data from an actual training department. The lessons learned from this study point to a variety of competencies that are essential to a successful training manager. These findings are reflected throughout the new IBSTPI competencies, especially with respect to communications skills, networking, strategic planning, organizational change, and the use of leadership skills. They are especially pertinent to the IBSTPI competencies since they are directed primarily at large organizations.

The Anderson Study

Purpose and procedures. The purpose of the Anderson (2000) research was to identify "survival" competencies of the human resource development generalist. She defines this person as someone who is the sole employee in a training department and cites data claiming that these persons represent over 28% of the business community in the United States alone (see Anderson, 2000, pp.2–3). Anderson's research is directed toward identifying the most important areas of preparation that will help these "solo performers" survive in the next five years.

This study utilized modified Delphi techniques for data collection. Expert participants were recommended by the board of a related professional organization. Seven persons agreed to serve on the panel of experts. Data were collected over a period of three months via telephone, e-mail, and web pages. There were three iterations of the Delphi procedure to identify the experts and four iterations to identify the competencies.

Results. Anderson's (2000) research produced 12 areas of competence required of the human resource development generalist. They are listed in order of importance: political acumen; communication; organization; relationship management; inquiry; internal consulting; presentation skills; organizational linkage; project management; organizational diagnosis; assessment of employee performance; and job-specific training.

Anderson clusters these areas of competence into three categories: business skills, managerial skills, and human resource development skills. Furthermore, her data indicate that half of these areas (political acumen, communication, organization, relationship management, internal consulting, and project management) require a *mastery* level of competence. The remaining skills require an *understanding* level of competence.

Application of findings. Even though Anderson's (2000) research is not directed toward large organizations, it does confirm many of the new IBSTPI training manager competencies. The items related to the organization (e.g., political acumen, organizational diagnosis and linkage, internal consulting, and relationship management) are particularly reflective of the underlying organizational performance improvement tone of the IBSTPI competencies. Moreover, Anderson's extensive review of the competency literature proved useful to the early analysis of the training manager field.

The Validation Research

Purpose and Scope of the Study

The final list of training manager competencies and performance standards is based upon the input of nearly 500 professionals from around the world, including the IBSTPI Board of Directors, initial reviewers, and finally, the validation participants. The validation study sought to determine the extent to which the competencies and their related performance statements reflect those skills that are the most critical to the training manager role in the workplace today. Specifically, the study focused on establishing: (1) the level of criticality in the workplace of each competency and performance statement; (2) that the language of the competencies and performance statements was consistent with that used in the workplace; (3) that the language was culturally appropriate outside North America; and (4) that no critical areas of work had been overlooked.

Ultimately the aim of this research was to produce a final, validated set of competencies and performance statements for use in the profession. This was accomplished by accepting, rejecting, or modifying each of the revised competencies and performance statements and by adding new competencies or performances suggested by the study respondents.

Procedures

Instrumentation. The validation survey instrument was constructed and field-tested[1]. Section 1 of the instrument focused upon demographic data, and Section 2[2] was designed to gather reactions to each competency and each performance statement.

Section 1 of the survey sought data on:

1. Respondent profile, including gender and age; educational background; and field in which professionally qualified.
2. Respondent occupational profile, including number of years in the training and development field; number of years as a training manager; and perceived level of expertise.
3. Respondent's job profile, including geographical location of work; organizational setting; main job focus; percentage of time devoted to managing the training function; number of people served by the training department; and number of employees supervised.

Section 2 of the survey measured respondent perceptions of the criticality of each competency and each performance statement. A sample section of the instrument showing one competency and its associated performance statements is presented in Fig. 6.1.

The instrument was made available on the IBSTPI web site, and the validation process was carried out from August through November, 2000. Although provisions were made for submitting paper copies, all responses were electronically submitted.

Sample Selection

Respondents were solicited in a variety of ways. IBSTPI Board members advertised the validation survey through their personal and organizational networks, as well as on professional electronic mailing lists. In

1. Instrument field-testing took place in two phases. Initially a draft instrument was developed and distributed internationally. The data from this trial were used primarily to guide demographic profile item construction and to document training managers' perceptions of recent changes in their roles and of changes likely to come. A formal field-testing of the final validation instrument was also conducted on a worldwide basis.

2. Reliability for Section 2 was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. This part of the instrument had a high level of reliability ($a = 0.98$).

Section 2. Training Manager Competency and Performance Criticality

The updated Training Manager competencies are listed below in bold. The performances that contribute to the demonstration of each competency are listed (and indented) below each competency.

For each of the items below, indicate how important the statement is in relation to **your job** using the scale of 1-5.

1=None 2=Low 3= Moderate 4=High 5=Very High

10. Comply with established legal and ethical standards.
1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4❑ 5❑

11. Comply with the legal requirements of copyright and other intellectual property laws.
1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4❑ 5❑

12. Comply with legal and ethical requirements for confidentiality and anonymity.
1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4❑ 5❑

13. Adhere to legal procedures to protect the rights of the organization and employees.
1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4❑ 5❑

14. Avoid internal and external conflicts of interest.
1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4❑ 5❑

15. Comply with the organization's proprietary information, electronic security, and property protection regulations.
1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4❑ 5❑

16. Comply with organizational and professional codes of ethics.
1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4❑ 5❑

Figure 6.1. Sample items from data collection instrument used for competency validation.

addition, individuals coming to the web site of their own accord also completed the survey instrument. Since the sample was not selected on a random or systematic basis, the profile data cannot be assumed to be truly representative.

A Description of the Respondents

The sample was a diverse group of 472 respondents, representing a variety of constituencies in all regions of the world. Although strenuous efforts were made to reach professionals throughout the world, the majority (83%) comes from North America.

There was a lower response rate from some less developed regions of the world. This may be due to a variety of reasons. These areas are likely to have fewer training manager practitioners; however, the web-based format may account for this lower representation in the sample, since telephone connections are often problematic. Nonetheless, there is considerable diversity among the respondents as shown in Tables 6.1 through 6.3.

There was a near equal representation by gender (53% female). The typical training manager respondent is between 30 and 50 years of age and has a Masters level qualification. The typical respondent reports communications as the main area in which he or she is qualified. The occupational backgrounds of the respondents are shown in Table 6.2

The typical respondent has worked in the training and performance field between six and 15 years, but as a training manager for less than ten years. Respondents characterize their level of expertise as a training manager between moderate and high. Table 6.3 continues the description of respondents in terms of profiling their current jobs.

The majority of the respondents are from North America and work in sales and service-oriented organizations. However, a considerable number (22%) work in government or public agencies. The respondents devote approximately half of their workday on the average to managing the training function as their main job focus. The rest of their time tends to be in design and development, although almost a quarter of the respondents (22%) also deliver training.

Levels of Support

General reactions. Overall, respondents supported the training manager competencies at a high level by assigning high criticality ratings to

Table 6.1 A Profile of IBSTPI Training Manager Competency Validation Respondents (N=472)

Characteristic	*N*	*Percentage*
Gender		
Female	248	53
Male	219	47
Total Number of Respondents	467	100
Age		
20-30	38	8
31-40	135	29
41-50	188	40
51-60	98	21
61+	8	2
Total Number of Respondents	467	100
Educational Level		
Less than Bachelors	45	10
Bachelors	103	22
Masters Level	225	48
Post-Masters/Doctoral	95	20
Total Number of Respondents	468	100
Field of Professional Qualification		
Adult Education	157	10
Communications	329	22
Education	54	4
Human Resources	71	5
Instructional Systems	100	7
Educational Technology	122	8
Management	176	12
Organization Development	148	10
Psychology	187	12
Training and Development	123	8
Other	43	3
Total Number of Responses	1510	101

Table 6.2 An Occupational Profile of IBSTPI Training Manager Competency Validation Respondents (N=472)

Characteristic	*N*	*Percentage*
Years in Training & Development Field		
1-5	101	22
6-10	119	26
11-15	117	25
16-20	66	14
>21	63	13
Total Number of Respondents	466	100
Years as Training Manager		
1-5	226	50
6-10	116	26
11-15	60	13
>16	50	11
Total Number of Respondents	452	100
Perceived Level of Expertise		
None	2	1
Low	15	3
Moderate	154	33
High	213	46
Very High	79	17
Total Number of Respondents	463	100

Table 6.3 A Job Profile of IBSTPI Training Manager Competency Validation Respondents (N=472)

Characteristic	*N*	*Percentage*
Geographic Location of Work		
Africa	5	1.1
Asia	13	2.8
Australia/New Zealand	24	5.1
Europe	31	6.6
Latin America/Mexico	3	.6
Middle East	3	.6
North America	389	82.9
Pacific Islands	1	.2
Total Number of Respondents	469	100
Organizational Setting		
Government/Public Agencies	102	22
Hi Tech/Telecommunications	83	18
Higher Education	54	11

Characteristic	*N*	*Percentage*
Sales & Services	160	34
Manufacturing	62	13
Multiple Settings	11	2
Total Number of Respondents	472	100
Main Job Focus		
Delivery Systems	67	9
Evaluation	40	5
Instructor/Trainer	108	14
Training Design/Development	239	32
Training Management	255	34
Other	42	6
Total Number of Responses (1-2 per respondent)	751	100
Main Job Focus[1]		
Delivery Systems	67	14
Evaluation	40	9
Instructor/Trainer	108	23
Training Design/Development	239	51
Training Management	255	54
Other	42	9
Total Number of Responses (1-2 per respondent)	751	
Time Spent Managing Training Function		
<10%	29	6
11-25%	59	13
26-50%	96	21
51-75%	121	26
76 – 100%	157	34
Total Number of Respondents	462	100
Number Served by Training Department		
1-25	25	5
26-75	13	3
76-100	13	3
101-150	17	4
151-1000	157	34
1001 or more	239	51
Total Number of Respondents	464	100
Number of Employees Supervised		
1-5	278	64
6-12	70	16
13-20	39	9
21-35	16	4
36 or more	29	7
Total Number of Respondents	432	100

1. Percentage of respondents rather than percentage of responses.

the majority of items using a 1–5 scale. (Five indicates a *very high* rating, 4 is *high*, 3 is *moderate*, 2 is *low*, and 1 indicates that the item was *not critical at all.*) The average rating for the 14 competencies is 4.29, which falls in the *high+* range. Table 6.4 summarizes the level of support for the competencies.

The most highly rated competencies are communication skills and leadership skills (rated *very high*). More than 70% of the competencies fell into the middle rating (*high +*). Two of the three competencies in the

Table 6.4 A Summary of the Level of Support for IBSTPI Training Manager Competencies (N = 472)

Competency Domain	4.5-5.0 Very High		4.0 – 4.49 High +		3.5 – 3.99 High–		Total Across Competency Domains	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Professional Foundations	1	25	3	75	0	0	4	100
Performance Analysis & Planning	0	0	1	33	2	67	3	100
Design & Development	0	0	3	100	0	0	3	100
Administration	1	25	3	75	0	0	4	100
Total Across Competencies	2	14	10	71	2	14	14	99

Table 6.5 A Summary of the Level of Support for IBSTPI Training Manager Performance Statements (N = 472)

Competency Domain	4.5-5.0 Very High		4.0 – 4.49 High +		3.5 – 3.99 High–		3.0–3.49 Moderate		Total Across Competency Domains	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Professional Foundations	4	15	16	59	5	19	2	7	27	100
Performance Analysis & Planning	1	8	6	46	6	46	0	0	13	100
Design & Development	0	0	6	43	8	57	0	0	14	100
Administration	1	4	13	57	9	39	0	0	23	100
Total Across Competencies	6	8	41	53	28	36	2	3	77*	100

* Changes made to performance statements as a result of the feedback from the validation led to the addition of some performance statements and removal of others. The final listing is 88 performance statements.

performance analysis and planning domain fell in the *high-* category (although at 3.92 and 3.96 respectively they are very close to *high+* category). The third competency in this domain (strategic planning) fell in the middle rating (*high +*). The rating of this competency is similar to the rating of administration domain competencies to which it is closely allied.

Table 6.5 summarizes the level of support for the competencies and performance statements clustered in the four competency domains.

In most cases the performance statements received a rating equal to or lower than the competency statement to which they related. The exceptions are for the two performance analysis and planning competencies rated in the *high-* category. Six of the 13 performance statements for these competencies are rated as *high +*.

Typically, performance statements received a rating between 3.50 and 4.49. In general, technology-related performance statements were rated lower. Similarly, those that imply a perspective external to the organization tended to be rated lower (for example, "maintain industry-specific contacts for benchmarking"). On the other hand, statements with an internal focus were rated higher (for example, "establish cross-functional alliances within the organization" and "develop organizational support for training strategies and solutions").

Lower ratings overall were also given to performance statements pertaining to data collection, scheduling, and metrics for monitoring the performance of the training function. However, respondents whose primary focus is managing the training department, or who are in large organizations, tended to give higher ratings to the business skill competency and most of the associated performance statements.

Managers working in large organizations and those persons whose primary function is management rated the performance statement, "Establish metrics to monitor the training function against its strategic plan," higher than part-time managers and those working in smaller organizations.[3] Those in large organizations also tended to rate the performance statement, "Promote the business case for performance interventions," higher than did those in smaller organizations.[4]

Competency ranking. Table 6.6 presents more specific results and

3. The correlation coefficient describing the relationship between primary job focus and the establish metrics performance statement is r = .155, significant at the .01 level. The correlation coefficient describing the relationship between organization size and the establish metrics performance statement is r = .157, significant at the .01level.

4. The correlation coefficient describing the relationship between organization size and the business case performance statement is r = .168, significant at the .01 level.

shows the mean criticality rating and the related variance for each individual competency. The competencies are then ranked (1 to 14) in terms of criticality.

The top ranked competency (communication) is in the professional foundations domain, which is to be expected. The next two are in the administration domain and reflect the importance of the management

Table 6.6 A Summary of the Criticality and Expertise Ratings of the 2003 IBSTPI Training Manager Competencies

Competencies	N	Mean Criticality (1-5; 5=high)	SD	Criticality Rank
PROFESSIONAL FOUNDATIONS				
Communicate effectively in written, oral, and visual form.	465	4.80	.43	1
Comply with established legal and ethical standards.	464	4.42	.84	4
Maintain networks to advocate for and support the training function.	463	4.19	.87	10
Update and improve professional and business knowledge, skills, and attitudes	462	4.40	.70	5
PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS & PLANNING				
Develop and monitor a strategic training plan.	458	4.33	.84	7
Use performance analysis to improve the organization.	457	3.96	1.01	13
Plan and promote organizational change.	454	3.92	1.00	14
DESIGN & DEVELOPMENT				
Apply instructional system design principles to training projects.	454	4.13	.94	11
Use technology to enhance the training function.	455	4.12	.89	12
Evaluate training and performance interventions.	456	4.26	.87	9
ADMINISTRATION				
Apply leadership skills to the training function.	448	4.52	.72	2
Apply management skills to the training function.	451	4.44	.78	3
Apply business skills to the training function.	451	4.31	.85	8
Implement knowledge management solutions.	449	4.34	.78	6

and leadership aspects of the training manager's role. It is significant that complying with established legal and ethical standards is one of the top five ranked competencies, once again highlighting the concern training managers have with ensuring that the organization is not in a vulnerable position regarding training practice, course content, or proprietary information.

Two of the three design and development competencies and two of the three performance analysis and planning competencies fall in the bottom third of the ranked list. This suggests that many training managers may not perform these tasks and/or view them as less important than the more traditional leadership and management tasks.

Factors Contributing to Significant Differences

Gender

Several significant gender differences were observed. Male training managers who responded tended to be older, to have a higher education level, to have more experience in the field and in training management, and to supervise a larger staff. They also tended to rate themselves higher in expertise than the female respondents. There was no significant gender difference in relation to the size of the organization in which they are employed as a training manager.

There are significant gender differences in the rating of four competencies. Female respondents tended to place more importance on competencies related to communication [communicate effectively, maintain networks, and manage and disseminate information and knowledge][5]. They also rated the application of business skills more highly. There are no significant differences between males and females with respect to the rating of technology performance statements, although some may have expected this.

5. Manage and disseminate information and knowledge was changed to Implement knowledge management solutions as a result of the research feedback.

Work Experience

Work experience relates to the number of years in the training and performance field and the number of years as a training manager. These two variables account for several significant differences in the ratings of competencies and performance statements. For example, the ratings for the bottom ranked competencies, "use performance analysis to improve the organization" and "plan and promote organizational change," are positively correlated with the number of years of experience in the training field and as a training manager.[6] In other words, the more experienced that the training managers were, the more likely they were to see the significance of these competencies and rate them higher. Respondents with the most years of experience as training managers were also the most likely to see the importance of performance statements pertaining to the use of advisory groups and to cultivating a sense of ownership within project teams.

Respondents with the most experience in the training and development field, irrespective of how many years they had been a training manager, were the most likely to recognize the importance of: applying instructional system design principles; evaluating training and performance interventions; applying management skills; applying leadership skills; maintaining industry-specific contacts for benchmarking; using advisory groups; establishing metrics to monitor the training function's performance; establishing on-going relationships with suppliers and customers; and cultivating a sense of ownership within project teams.

Geographical Setting

The only significant differences in the competency criticality ratings between the North American respondents and those from other regions

6. The correlation coefficient describing the relationship between years of experience in training and the performance analysis performance statement was $r = .111$, significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient describing the relationship between years of experience in training and the organizational change performance statement was $r = .163$, significant at the .01 level. The correlation coefficient describing the relationship between years of experience in training management and the performance analysis performance statement was $r = .105$, significant at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient describing the relationship between years of experience in training management and the organizational change performance statement was $r = .139$, significant at the .01 level.

are in three areas: instructional design, management skills, and business skills. In each case the North American ratings are higher.

The significant differences in the performance statement criticality ratings between the North American respondents and those from other regions of the world are in the following areas, with the North American ratings being higher: confidentiality and anonymity; proprietary information and electronic security; copyright and intellectual property; knowledge of the organization's products, services and operations; keeping up-to-date with customer requirements; selecting technology for the organization; delivering products and services on a timely basis; and managing financial and material resources.

Several of these reflect legal requirements, which may be emphasized more in North American organizations than in other regions of the world. However, it is difficult to speculate as to why there should be a significant difference in the criticality ratings of "keep up-to-date with customer requirements" or "deliver products and services on a timely basis," for example.

Organizational Setting

Training managers from different organizational settings differed in competency criticality ratings. These ratings pertained to communication, strategic planning, technology use, and business skills.

1. Those in manufacturing and higher education rated *communication* higher than training managers in government/public agencies and sales and services.
2. Training managers in hi tech/telecommunications and manufacturing rated *strategic planning* higher than those in government/public agencies.
3. Training managers from high tech/telecommunications rated *technology use* higher than those from sales and services.
4. Those in higher education and government/public agencies rated *business skills* lower than training managers from all other work settings.

Implications for the Final Training Manager Competencies

The validation research, in general, confirmed the training manager competencies and performance statements as presented in the survey. However, respondents' extensive written comments provided a basis for rewording some competencies and performance statements and adding others. Two competencies and 23 performance statements were reworded. This required minor editing rather than major changes in most cases. Four performance statements were deleted. Three of these related to knowledge management and one to the use of professional training networks to enhance the training function. A performance statement pertaining to recruitment and development of training staff was split into two statements, and 14 new performance statements were generated as a result of respondent feedback. This increased the total from 77 to 88.

The major changes were in the competency and performance statements dealing with knowledge management. It was clear from the validation survey input that the original competency and performance statements were not well focused or sufficiently crisp in their wording. Board members sought input from several knowledge management experts in rewording the competency and performance statements.

New performance statements that were added as a result of respondent input focused on negotiation, interpersonal communication skills, and staying current with developments in the organization (in the professional foundations domain); internal consulting skills and promotion of life-long learning as a continuous improvement process (in the performance analysis and planning domain); promotion of instructional design processes and e-learning solutions (in the design and development domain); and on team building, outsourcing, budgeting, and knowledge management (in the administration domain).

Many respondents wrote lengthy comments at the end of the survey, suggesting trends or developments that, in their view, the draft standards did not adequately address. They highlighted the importance of negotiation skills and the need to be mindful of political issues, in particular. Many also wanted the revised standards to reflect the shift from classroom delivery to more technology-based training. Other issues raised by respondents, which in turn influenced the final set of standards, included budget management, team dynamics, and consulting skills.

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Appendix A

IBSTPI and Its History

The International Board of Standards for Training, Performance and Instruction (IBSTPI) is a professional organization serving the instructional design, training and performance improvement community. The Board serves the community through research, publications and conferences.

The Board consists of 15 professionals, selected to be broadly representative of the communities we serve. Members are from universities, government, military, businesses, and consulting firms. The Board has international representation, with directors from Australia, Canada, France, Japan, Spain, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The Board meets monthly by conference call and three times a year face-to-face in various locations, one of which is outside the United States.

Each board member serves as an exemplar of professional practice and the ethics of the profession. They serve as public advocates of the profession in speaking engagements, seminars, workshops and other public discussions. The Board seeks to portray professional practice as a set of agreed-upon competencies for the various functions of the profession. The Board has published competency standards for instructors, designers, and managers who work in the profession of training and performance improvement. One of the Board's goals is to have these standards adopted and used by a wider array of public and private organizations.

The Board also arranges to update and revise standards of practices so that they are more broadly applicable across time and place.

IBSTPI grew from the work of the Joint Certification Task Force, which was composed of representatives from the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) and the National Society for Performance and Instruction (NSPI, now the International Society for Performance Improvement). Created in 1977, the Joint Task Force included over 30 practitioners and academics with expertise in various facets of training, performance and instruction. The Task Force developed the initial set of competencies for the instructional design professional, published an index linking current publications to competencies, and created a prototype assessment procedure. Also, members of the Task Force spoke at professional meetings and published articles on professional competence and certification.

The Task Force reorganized itself in 1983 to avoid conflicts of interest with its parent organizations. This action was taken with the approval and encouragement of the Board of Directors of NSPI, AECT, and the Division of Instructional Development within AECT.

IBSTPI primarily emphasizes research which leads to publication of competency models. Recently IBSTPI has updated three major sets of training competencies pertaining to instructional designers, training managers, and instructors. The Board has also developed codes of ethical standards related to each of these sets of competencies.

Instructor Competencies: The Standards (1993) is the foundation for many instructor training programs and until September 2003 was the basis of the Certified Technical Trainer certification administered by the Computer Technology Industry Association (CompTIA). Over 3,500 technical instructors have gained CTT+ (Certified Technical Trainer) certification based on the IBSTPI standards.

Conferences sponsored by the Board typically gather researchers, invited speakers and participants around a particular theme. In 1998, a conference was held at the University of Bergen in Norway to examine the intersection of instructional design and performance improvement. The following year, the Board convened a workshop at Estes Park, Colorado, to consider revisions to the training manager competencies, a project culminating in this book. In 2000, IBSTPI and Lancaster University in the United Kingdom jointly sponsored a conference addressing issues of online training delivery. Building on the work begun at that conference, IBSTPI is currently revising the standards for instructors to include those working in online environments. The revised competencies are scheduled for publication in 2004.

Appendix B

The 1989 IBSTPI Training Manager Competencies and Performance Statements

1. Assess organizational, departmental, and program needs.

   a. Assure needs are assessed.
   b. Assure needs assessments and analyses follow a systematic process.
   c. Direct needs assessment and analysis activities,
   d. Distinguish needs from wants.
   e. Determine gaps in performance.
   f. Classify performance discrepancies.
   g. State a rationale for the assessment and analysis methods chosen and the judgments made.

2. Develop plans for the department and programs.

   a. Assure training goals are set for the enterprise.
   b. Set objectives for department/function.
   c. Determine what resources will be required to achieve departmental objectives.
   d. Develop plans to achieve objectives.
   e. Develop project plans.
   f. Develop departmental and project budgets.

g. Plan for implementation.
h. Assign resources to support total training function.
i. Schedule human, physical, and fiscal resources for projects.
j. State a rationale for plans, objectives, and resource assignments

3. Link human performance to the effectiveness of the enterprise.

a. Determine whether training and/or development activities will improve performance.
b. Promote the use of training and development activities to improve human performance
c. State rationale to support recommendations for improving human performance.

4. Apply instructional system design and development principles.

a. Assure recommended interventions are derived through a systematic process.
b. Apply training, Performance Technology, and Human Resource Development principles.
c. Distinguish the capabilities of different media and methods.
d. Classify learning implications of different performances.
e. State a rationale for the conclusions drawn and recommendations made based on the principles.

5. Assure the application of effective training principles.

a. Manage learning environments.
b. Manage facilities (building, registration, and support services).
c. Assure instructional principles are adhered to.
d. State a rationale for the use of effective training management principles.

6. Evaluate the instructional design, development, and delivery functions.

a. Conduct cost/benefit analyses.
b. Develop and implement quality assurance procedures.
c. Assure processes, procedures, and products (interventions) are evaluated.
d. State a rationale for the evaluation of processes, procedures, and products (interventions).

7. Apply the principles of performance management to own staff.

   a. Recruit and select staff.
   b. Develop staff.
   c. Direct others.
   d. Supervise staff.
   e. State rationale to support application of performance management principles.

8. Think critically when making decisions and solving problems.

   a. Apply systematic thinking to problem solving.
   b. Base conclusions and solutions on an analysis of the situation.
   c. Maintain objectivity.
   d. Develop and test hypotheses.
   e. Employ supportable evidence in decision making.
   f. State a rationale for decisions made, conclusions drawn, and actions taken.

9. Assure actions are consistent with goals and objectives.

   a. Assure actions are consistent with goals and objectives.
   b. Establish feedback systems.
   c. State rationale in support of actions.

10. Adapt strategies and solutions given change.

   a. Establish systems and/or procedures to identify change.
   b. Monitor changing conditions.
   c. Adapt strategies and solutions to changing conditions.
   d. State rationale for adaptations to change.

11. Produce effective and efficient solutions.

   a. Assure choices and decisions are based on established principles or practices.
   b. Weigh the advantages and disadvantages of alternatives.
   c. Employ cost/benefit analyses.
   d. Select solutions on the basis of effectiveness and efficiency.
   e. Selection solutions from among alternatives based on cost/benefit analysis.

f. State rationale for producing effective and efficient solutions.

12. Develop and sustain social relationships.

a. Establish and maintain communication networks.
b. Follow organizational norm for reciprocity.
c. Participate in organizational politics.
d. Serve as a common point of contact.
e. Stay informed about the enterprise and its environment.
f. State a rationale for the number and type of social relationships and political alliances supported and/or avoided.

13. Provide leadership.

a. Promote the use of instructional and performance technology(s).
b. Negotiate for goods, services, resources, information, and commitment to action.
c. Model empirical approach.
d. Stay knowledgeable of developments in the field.
e. Facilitate change.
f. Influence decisions and behaviors of others.
g. Enlist the support of others.
h. Direct others.
i. State a rationale for actions taken.

14. Use effective interpersonal communication techniques.

a. Build trust and respect.
b. Adjust behavior in response to the situation.
c. Deal with dissention fairly.
d. State a rationale for the interpersonal communication techniques used and strategy taken.

15. Communicate effectively orally and in writing.

a. Give formal presentations to groups.
b. Communicate orally.
c. Communicate in writing.
d. State rationale for communication strategy employed.

Appendix C

Glossary

benchmarking. The process of comparing curricula or organizational practices with best-practice programs in other organizations.

brand identity. The consistent image and identity communicated by products from an organization.

broker. An agent acting as an intermediary by buying or selling on behalf of another.

business case. A request for project investment that identifies the costs and returns of the proposed project and compares it to other possible solutions.

certification. The voluntary process by which a professional association or organization measures and reports on the degree of competence of individual practitioners (Gilley, Geis & Seyfer, 1987).

change agent. The individual or group responsible for understanding and facilitating or managing a specific change initiative in an organization.

change management. The process of implementing organizational changes in a planned, managed, and systematic fashion.

code of ethics. A set of principles intended to aid members of the field individually and collectively in maintaining a high level of professional conduct (Seels & Richey, 1994).

community of practice. A group of professionals united by a common concern or purpose, dedicated to supporting each other in increasing their knowledge, creating new insights, and enhancing performance in a particular domain (Rosenberg, 2001). Related terms: *learning community* and *knowledge community.*

competency. A knowledge, skill or attitude that enables one to effectively perform the activities of a given occupation or function to the standards expected in employment.

confirmative evaluation. The process of determining whether, over time, learners have maintained their level of competence, the instructional materials remain effective, and the organizational problems have been solved. Confirmative evaluation occurs after formative and summative evaluation (Seels & Richey, 1994).

conflict of interest. A situation in which personal affairs adversely affect one's relationship with the organization.

consultant. An individual or organization retained to work on a project because of specific expertise. May be internal to one's organization or external. Related terms: *contractor, vendor,* and *outsourced provider.*

core functions. Those functions that are of central importance to an organization's success.

cost effective. When the value derived from a transaction meets or exceeds the cost of that transaction to an individual or organization.

cross-cultural. The study and practice of communicating and relating across cultures. Related term: *intercultural.*

cross-functional alliances. Partnerships with specialists from other organizational functions, such as organizational development, human resource development, marketing, multi-media development, or technical groups within the organization.

curriculum. A body of organized instructional materials, typically consisting of programs and courses. May also refer to the aggregate of modules or courses directed toward a common goal of a given organization.

customer. An organization or person for whom a service is performed. May be internal or external to one's organization. Related term: *client.*

direct costs. Those costs that can be specifically identified with a particular project, program, or activity and which come out of a budget

for that particular effort (e.g., cost of printing course materials, consultants' fees, and equipment rental).

domain. A cluster of related competencies. Other uses: *a subject matter area.*

e-learning. The use of electronic technologies to deliver a broad array of solutions that enhance knowledge and performance (Rosenberg, 2001).

e-learning solutions. Instruction, information and communication delivered via all electronic media including the Internet, intranets, satellite broadcast, multi-media, audio/video tape, interactive TV, CD-ROM, and wireless devices.

emerging technologies. New techniques, tools, and equipment used in designing or delivering instruction, including virtual reality, reusable learning objects, wireless technologies, and multi-user object-oriented domains (adapted from Seels & Richey, 1994).

evaluation. See *confirmative evaluation, formative evaluation,* and *summative evaluation.*

formative evaluation. Gathering information on the adequacy of an instructional product or program and using this information as a basis for further development (Seels & Richey, 1994).

globalization. The rapid increase in the movement of goods, services, and capital across international borders and accompanied by a growing interdependence between different peoples and countries.

human resource development. The integrated use of training and development, organizational development and career development to improve individual, group, and organizational effectiveness (McLagan, 1989)

indirect costs. Costs which are not directly charged to a project or activity but are nonetheless associated with a particular training project or activity (e.g., wages of course attendees, time of subject matter experts).

information technology (IT). The hardware, software, services, infrastructure, and processes that allow an organization to make effective use of a variety of forms of data, information, and knowledge. Related term: *information communications technology (ICT).*

instructional design. Systematic instructional planning including needs assessment, development, evaluation, implementation, and

maintenance of materials and programs (adapted from Seels & Richey, 1994). Related term: *instructional systems design.*

intellectual property. The knowledge, processes, and capabilities that a company or an individual has developed. Typically protected by copyright.

knowledge management. The capture, organization and storage of lessons learned in an organization in a way that facilitates continuous updates and wide distribution, typically through an electronic data bank (adapted from Rossett, 2001).

life-long learning. Continuous learning and development, initiated by an individual, and not necessarily reliant on continuous training. Related terms: *informal learning* and *continuing professional education.*

m-learning. The use of wireless personal communication devices such as pagers, cell phones, and personal digital assistants to deliver data and learning. Related terms: *mobile learning, mobile training,* and *mobile e-learning.*

message. A meaningful unit of communication that may take alternative forms, including written, visual, or oral. Messages may be instructional, informational, or motivational.

meta-evaluation. The evaluation of evaluations.

metrics. Numerical data that quantify performance dimensions, processes, products, services, training, and the overall organization.

multi-media. The integration of various media in order to support training and performance improvement. The media may include graphics, video, animation, sound, and text.

needs assessment. A systematic process for determining goals, identifying discrepancies between optimal and actual performance, and establishing priorities for action (Briggs, 1977). Related terms: *training needs assessment, needs analysis, front-end analysis, task analysis,* and *subject matter analysis.*

organizational change. The implementation of new procedures or technologies intended to realign an organization with the changing demands of its business environment (adapted from Conner, 1992).

organizational development. A system-wide application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures, and processes for improving

an organization's effectiveness (Cummings & Worley, 1997). Related term: *change management.*

organizational improvement. A systematic effort to ensure that the changes brought about by internal or external pressures are constructive and beneficial as measured by the improved performance of the organization.

organizational mission. A description of the organization's purpose, values, strategic position, and long-term goals.

organizational philosophy. A description of an organization's values with regard to how it intends to act and interact in its environment.

outsourcing. Seeking products or vendors outside the organization rather than developing or providing the services from within. Related term: *build versus buy.*

performance analysis. Partnering with customers to help define and achieve their goals by investigating multiple perspectives on a problem or opportunity, determining drivers and barriers to successful performance, and proposing a solution system based on what is learned and necessarily not on what is typically done (adapted from Rossett, 1999).

performance improvement. The process of designing or selecting interventions directed toward a change in behavior, typically on the job. Related terms: *performance technology* and *human performance technology.*

performance technology. A systematic process for integrating interventions from a wide variety of fields such as instructional systems, organizational development, change management, information systems, job redesign, motivation, feedback, human factors, and selection systems. Related term: Human performance technology.

professional activities. Conduct that enhances the skill, knowledge or capacity of the practitioner, including attending professional association meetings and conferences, reading relevant texts, and networking with other practitioners.

proprietary information. Information that has value to a company and that is not public knowledge. Related terms: *intellectual property* and *copyright.*

reliability. The degree to which items or instruments consistently yield the same or comparable results.

return on investment. An actual value developed by comparing program costs to benefits to the organization (Phillips, 1997).

stakeholders. People with a vested interest in project outcomes, including, for example, learners, managers, third parties, team members, colleagues and customers.

strategic plan. A process for focusing objectives and allocating resources to achieve long-range organizational goals.

subject matter expert (SME). A content specialist who advises or assists in instructional design. Related term: content expert.

summative evaluation. The systematic gathering of information on the adequacy and outcomes of an instructional intervention and using this information to make decisions about utilization (Seels & Richey, 1994).

systems perspective. Viewing an organization or problem situation as a set of interrelated components, rather than concentrating on only one component independent of all others.

technologies. Techniques, tools, and equipment used in designing or delivering training services or performance solutions. Typical technologies include communications and information systems. Related terms: *information technology (IT)* and *information communications technology (ICT).*

training. Learning that is provided in order to improve workplace performance.

training function. The department or group responsible for an organization's individual and collective learning and performance requirements.

training manager. Manager of the training function within an organization. Term may also be applied to managers of instructional design and development groups, or managers of instructors and trainers.

transfer. The application of knowledge and skills acquired in training to another environment, typically a work setting.

validation. The process of determining the extent to which competencies and performance statements are supported by the profession.

visuals. Graphics or teaching materials that pictorially describe ideas or convey meaning, including overhead transparencies, screen graphics, or icons. Related term: *visual aids*

Appendix D

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Advances in Developing Human Resources
Human Resource Development International
Human Resource Development Quarterly
Human Resource Development Review
HR Magazine
International Journal of Training and Development
Journal of Adult Training
Journal of European Industrial Training
Organization Development Journal
Performance Improvement
Performance Improvement Quarterly
Training
Training and Development

Appendix E

The IBSTPI Code of Ethical Standards for Training Managers

1. Responsibilities to the Organization

   a. Provide efficient, effective, workable, and cost-effective solutions that advance organizational performance goals.
   b. Initiate and collaborate in organizational decision-making.
   c. Educate the organization in matters of instructional design and performance improvement.
   d. Inform the organization of potential conflicts of interest, and ethical, legal, and due process violations.
   e. Protect the privacy, candor, and confidentiality of information and communication of the organization and its members.
   f. Do not misuse organizational information for personal gain.

2. Responsibilities to Others

   a. Be honest and fair in interactions with others.
   b. Treat others with dignity and respect.
   c. Facilitate individual accomplishment.
   d. Do not engage in exploitative relationships.
   e. Do not discriminate unfairly in actions related to hiring, retention, salary adjustments and promotion.
   f. Do not represent the ideas or work of others as one's own.

g. Do not make false or deceptive claims about self, others, or the work of the training function.

3. Responsibilities to the Profession

a. Seek and acknowledge the contributions of others.
b. Aid and be supportive of colleagues.
c. Commit time and effort to the development of the profession.
d. Promote the enforcement of ethical standards.

4. Responsibilities to Society

a. Support humane, socially responsible goals and projects for the organization.
b. Ensure that training products and procedures reflect moral and ethical positions on societal issues.
c. Consider the consequences of proposed solutions upon individuals, organizations, and the society as a whole.

Appendix F

Professional Associations for Training Managers

The professional associations listed below serve training and human resource practitioners. Associations with chapters in several countries are listed in the *International* category; check their web sites to locate chapters in your region.

Asia-Pacific

Asian Regional Training and Development Organization (ARTDO)
www.artdointl.org

Australian Human Resources Institute (AHRI)
www.ahri.com.au

Australian Institute of Training and Development (AITD)
www.aitd.com.au

Human Resources Institute of New Zealand (HRINZ)
www.hrinz.org.nz

Indonesian HR Professionals Society (IHR)
http://ihrp.bizhosting.com

Japan Management Association (JMA)
www.jma.or.jp

Japanese Association for Educational Technology (JAET)
www.japet.or.jp/jet/

Malaysian Institute of Training and Development (MITD)
www.itd.com.my

New Zealand Association for Training and Development (NZATD)
www.nzatd.org.nz

Singapore Institute of Management (SIM)
www.sim.edu.sg

Singapore Training and Development Association (STADA)
www.stada.org.sg

Central and South America

Argentina Society for Human Resources/Training and Development (ACDCA)
www.adca.org.ar

Asociación Mexicana de Capacitación de Personal (Mexico) (AMECAP)
www.eventosamecap.com/amecap.htm

Associació Brasileira de Treinamento e Dessenvolvimento (Brazil) (ABTD)
www.abtdnacional.com.br

Europe, Middle East and Africa

Asociación Española de Direccion de Personal (Spain) (AEDIPE)
www.aedipe.es

Associazione Italiana per la Qualità della Formazione (AIQF) (Italian Association for Quality Training)
www.fita.it/annuario/aiqfed.html

ASTD Global Network Germany (ASTD.NETwork)
http://212.40.165.155/astdnet

Bahrain Society for Training & Development (BSTD)
www.bstd.com.bh

Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (U.K.) (CIPD)
www.cipd.co.uk

Dutch Training and Development Association (Netherlands) (DTDA)
www.nvvo.nl

Finnish Association for Human Resource Management (HENRY)
www.henryorg.fi

German Association for HR Management (DGFP)
www.dgfp.de

German Institute for Adult Education (DIE)
www.die frankfurt.de/portrait/die-in-english.htm

Institute of People Management (South Africa) (IPM)
www.ipm.co.za

Institute of Personnel and Development (U.K.) (IPD)
www.ipd.co.uk

Institute of Training and Occupational Learning (UK) (ITOL)
www.traininginstitute.co.uk

Irish Institute of Training and Development (IITD)
www.iitd.com

Verband der Management und Marketing-Trainer/innen (Austrian Association of Management and Marketing Trainers) (VMMT)
www.ping.at/vmmt

International

International Board of Standards for Training, Performance and Instruction (IBSTPI)
www.ibstpi.org

International Federation of Training and Development Organizations (IFTDO)
www.iftdo.org

International Society for Performance Improvement (ISPI)
www.ispi.org

Society for Intercultural Training and Research (SIETAR)
www.sietarinternational.org

USA and Canada

Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD)
www.ahrd.org

American Management Association (AMA)
www.amanet.org

American Society of Training and Development (ASTD)
www.astd.org

Association for Educational Communication and Technology (AECT)
www.aect.org

Ontario Society for Training and Development (OSTD)
www.ostd.ca

Organization Development Network (ODN)
www.odnetwork.org

Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM)
www.shrm.org

U.S. Department of Education
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
National Library of Education (NLE)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

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